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ABSTRACT

A research project studied the relationship between learning English as a second language, perceived ethnolinguistic vitality, and attitudinal and motivational factors. The study is an attempt to verify empirically for Hong Kong students results of previous research on the relationship between second language learning and sociocultural and psychological factors. The subjects were 195 bilingual elementary school students from 5 Hong Kong schools, who completed an ethnolinguistic questionnaire and an attitude and motivation battery. Their English language proficiency was measured by a previously-administered standardized test. Analysis of the results supported the hypothesized model, which linked sociocultural variables (group status, demography, and institutional support) and psychological variables (ethnic attitudes, language attitudes, interest in foreign languages, integrativeness, instrumentality, and ethnocentrism) with second language achievement. A demographic profile of Hong Kong, the ethnolinguistic and motivational measurement instruments, and a five-page bibliography are appended. (MSE)

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The Effects of
Sociocultural and Psychological Factors
upon Second Language Learning in a Bilingual Community

A Thesis Submitted to

the Graduate School

The Chinese University of Hong Kong

In Partial Fulfillment of

the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

by

Lau Chun Ip

June 1985

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Abstract

This paper aims at studying the relationship between perceived ethnolinguistic vitality and second language attitudes and motivations. The impetus of the study comes from the central theme in the social psychology of language (Jones, 1949 & 1950; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Spolsky, 1969; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Smythe, Clement & Gliksman, 1976; Schumann, 1978) that there is a high correlation between second language achievement and attitudinal and motivational factors; and these attitudinal and motivational factors often grow out of a learner's ethnolinguistic orientation towards the target language community. This research is an attempt to empirically verify this relationship between ethnolinguistic vitality factors and these attitudinal and motivational factors by employing a Hong Kong version of the ethnolinguistic questionnaire (Bourhis, Giles & Rosenthal, 1981) and a Hong Kong version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner & Smythe, 1981).

The subjects in this study comprised 195 Form 4 students from five different schools in Hong Kong. They were asked to fill out in Chinese the Hong Kong version of the two questionnaires. To provide a variable, the same students completed a cloze test in order to assess their global English proficiency. The subjects' grades in English on a public examination that they had taken in Form 3 (the JSEA) were also obtained.

The results from the ethnolinguistic vitality questionnaire show that the subjects perceive westerners and their language, English, to have higher social status than do Hong Kong Chinese and their language, Cantonese; however, the subjects perceive that the Hong Kong Chinese feel

no demographic threat from westerners. Furthermore, Chinese people are judged to have slightly better institutional support. From the ratings on the six composite factors in the Attitude/Motivation Complex, it is observed that the ethnocentric tendency of the subjects is not strong. Their attitudes towards westerners, in general, are positive but not strong. Analysis of the relationship between the two independent variables, (i.e. perceived ethnolinguistic vitality and Attitude/Motivation Complex) and language achievement reveals (1) that one-sixth of the performance of the subjects in the cloze test comes from the Attitude/Motivation Complex and (2) that the strength of perceived ethnolinguistic vitality could not be shown to have a direct influence on language learning achievement as represented by the cloze test and the score in the public examination.

Integration and assimilation are considered by some researchers to be the social consequences of bilingualism for dominant and subordinate groups respectively. Such outcomes, however, should not be taken as deterministic. The pattern of findings obtained from this study is not exactly the same as that from other contexts. This observation probably suggests that differences in the composition and characterisitics of the ethnicity context could be crucial in understanding second language attitudes and motivations.

The conclusions that are drawn and the recommendations that are made in this study are tentative and represent an early attempt to adopt a more empirical methodology in second language learning studies. The present research has integrated the sociopsychological approach into applied linguistics. One of the valuable features of this approach is that it

treats second language learners as individuals in a complex environment who are subject to contextual influences of all kinds. It is emphasized that only a truly interdisciplinary approach can help solve many of the puzzles within language related sciences so that we can bridge the gap between methodology and theory.

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank all those who have helped collect the questionnaire data, namely, the teachers and students from five secondary schools. Without their cooperation and sincere support, the task would never have been accomplished. Also, a note of tribute should be sent to many of my friends who have shared generously their expert knowledge in statistical analysis.

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THE EFFECTS OF SOCIOCULTURAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS

UPON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING IN A BILINGUAL COMMUNITY

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The general problem stated

It has been reported that achievement in second language learning is linked with two categories of variables, cognitive and affective, as far as individual learner characterisitcs are concerned. While language aptitude, cognitive styles and other cognitive differences are attributed to physiological or genetic differences, the affective factors, being socio-psychological in nature, are reflections of environmental influences and how individuals respond to these influences.

Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982) suggest that there are conscious and subconscious mental processes involved in learning a second language. In their opinion, one of the subconscious processors involved in language learning, which they call the "filter", "screens all incoming language based on affective factors: the learner's motives, attitudes, and emotional states" (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; p. 71). Furthermore, what is important about this "filter" is that it determines when efforts to learn the target language cease and how fast a learner can acquire a language.

Researchers often treat learner attitudes towards the target language community and motivation to learn the target language as major constituents of the affective component in second language learning. Numerous findings (Jones, 1949 & 1950; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Spolsky, 1969; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Smythe, Clement & Gliksman, 1976; Schumann, 1978) have revealed the configuration of this affective component. High correlation between second language learning achievement and attitudinal

and motivational factors has also been established. For instance, it has been demonstrated that those who are culturally open-minded, are willing to mix with native speakers of the target language, and who hold positive views towards learning the second language are more likely to be successful learners of the second language (Gardner & Lambert., 1959).

However, fewer attempts have been made to explain how the attitude/motivation complex has resulted in its present configuration. Social psychologists working on the behavioural aspect of language acquisition and language use have discovered that intergroup relations between ethnic groups, in many circumstances, influence individual linguistic behaviour (Giles, Bourhis & Taylor, 1977; St. Clair & Giles, 1980; Bourhis, Giles & Rosenthal, 1981).

Specifically, "perceived ethnolinguitic vitality", (a concept formulated to describe how members of one ethnic group see both themselves and outsiders) may promote success in second language learning in some cases, but elicit ill-feelings towards the learning process and the learning environ-ment in others. Second language learners who perceive their own ethnolinguistic group to have a weaker vitality, while the foreign/alien group enjoys a higher one, may interpret any attempt to learn the language of that alien group as threatening their well-being and betraying their own group. Consequently, this may lead to weak motivation to learn the new language, which in turn brings about low achievement in learning, no matter how intense the external pressures.

The purpose of this study is to further understand the relationship between sociocultural (structural) factors and psychological ones (attitud-

inal and motivational), and also to further understand how they bring about differences in levels of achievement in second language learning.

1.2 Context of the problem

Hong Kong, the context in which this research is conducted, is socio-linguistically complex. Approximately 97% of the population is Chinese (See Appendix A), who can more or less speak and understand Cantonese, the dialect of Kwangtung, in South China. However, in the community, English receives disproportionate emphasis at the expense of Chinese. English is considered to be a necessary second language in this society, despite the small number of native speakers of this language. In the domain of education, almost 90% of the entire secondary school population receive an English medium education. English is also highly regarded in both the government and the private employment sector.

Examining these facts carefully, Luke & Richards (1982) suggest that English in Hong Kong is neither a genuine second language nor a foreign language. Hong Kong is similar to real ESL settings, like Singapore, the Philippines, India and Nigeria, in that English (as one of the official languages) is used as a medium of instruction in some schools, and serves as a lingua franca for intergroup communication, no matter how restricted this communication is. Hong Kong is different from the above-mentioned countries in that there are no ingroup needs for spoken English for the Chinese population outside of the educational system and government and a small fraction of the employment sector.

Besides, the target community is a foreign and non-indigenous popula-

tion and English in Hong Kong has not yet developed into an indigenous variety. Native speaker usage rather than local usage is the target norm for language learning. The mode of acquisition and the context of learning are largely classroom instruction, which is the practice adopted in EFL communities like China and Japan.

In this bilingual community, societal bilingualism rather than individual bilingualism is the rule. The structure of social institutions is sound evidence of this claim. Two parallel systems in Chinese and English operate in such social institutions as the mass media, government, employment, cultural activities, education, and religious worship. For instance, at the end of 1983 (Hong Kong Government, 1984), the newspapers published in Hong Kong include fifty-four Chinese dailies and eight English dailies. Radio broadcasts are made through four Chinese, two English, and two bilingual channels. There are, furthermore, two Chinese television stations and two English ones. The large amount of English used in the mass media does not mean that there is a correspondingly large English speaking population. These English media are partially meant for the narrowly based bilingual population.

A high proportion of the Chinese population is monolingual. Though English has gained considerable importance as the written medium at work, it is still rarely used for intragroup oral communication, except when dimensions of authority are deliberately involved. Most members of the younger generation have the opportunity to receive secondary education and, therefore, have a working knowledge of English. However, the remainder of the general public perhaps can merely read a few signs or simple instructions written in English. A high degree of enclosure of both the

Chinese speaking and the English speaking communities leaves the two communities distant, undisturbed and uninvolved with each other. When intergroup communication is really necessary, though this happens infrequently, it is often the Chinese bilinguals who accomodate by switching to English.

What Fishman (1972) describes as diglossia without bilingualism is the closest description of the language situation in Hong Kong, at least when the spoken medium is concerned. Such a speech community has the following attributes:

(1) Individual repertoires are largely confined to one of the languages of the society;

(2) A single language is used for intragroup communication;

(3) Bilingualism is restricted to certain domains of intergroup contact;

(4) The bilingual population is narrowly based, rather than a broadly based population segment;

(5) Speech communities are marked by relatively impermeable group boundaries;

(6) The society does not consist of a single speech community but two distinct speech communities;

(7) Intragroup monolingualism rather than bilingualism is the norm

(Fishman, 1972; p. 106).

In addition to the characteristics of the speech community and infrequent interethnic contact between Chinese speaking and English speaking people, the colonial status of Hong Kong inevitably nourishes xenophobic feelings among some Chinese, or at least a sense of hostility towards westerners. Some see most westerners, mainly English speaking ones, as political and economic exploiters. Not only are westerners perceived as wealthy but they are also perceived by some Chinese as enjoying innumerable

privileges in society. It would be interesting to know whether such ill-feelings give rise to reluctance to learn the westerners' language, namely, English.

The complexity of the sociolinguistic profile of Hong Kong does not stop here. Most Chinese students in Hong Kong face a dilemma. No matter whether they like westerners or not, or whether they enjoy learning English or not, they have to study it diligently and learn it well. They understand that English has a high instrumental function in this society, which means that proficiency in English is the key to vocational success.

Looking at the present context then, does an ethnocentric disposition suppress the integrative motivation in second/foreign language learning? Or will a stronger instrumental orientation compensate for this loss? For different sociolinguistic settings, the conditions that are conducive to success in learning achievement can be very different.

Bearing in mind that, in Hong Kong, the status, the context of learning and the mode of acquisition of English are neither ESL nor EFL (in other words, do not stick congruently to one category), we should search for factors which affect both performance in second language learning and foreign language learning. For second language learning, the focus is on social factors and the role of the individual in relation to groups in contact. With foreign language learning, the primary emphasis is on interaction between native and non-native speakers and the major variables seem to be psychological variables affecting the individual as a language learner and language user (Schumann, 1978).

1.3 The hypothesized model explained

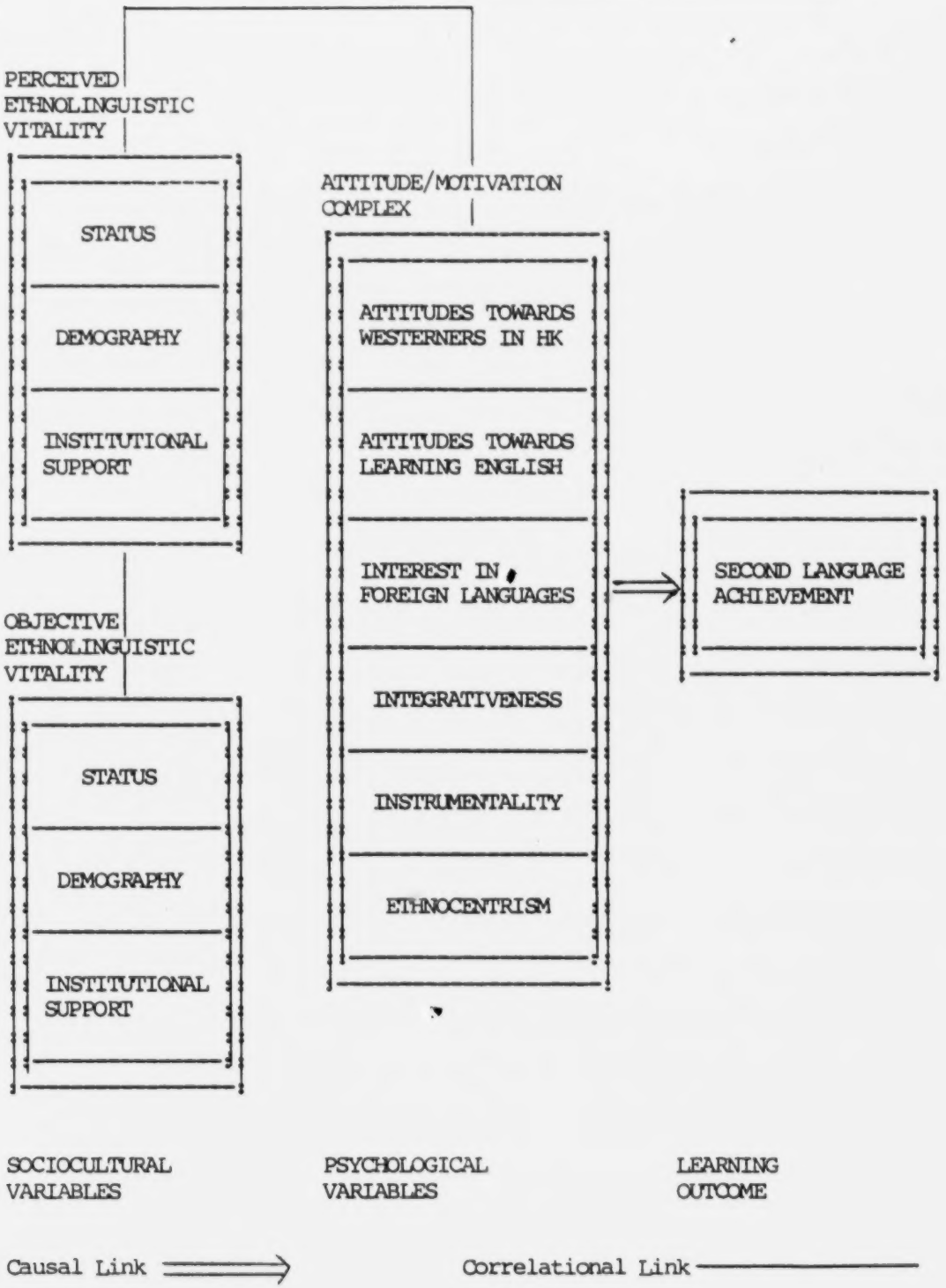
It is assumed that the Attitude/Motivation Complex, representing the learners' willingness to learn a second language and the amount of effort they are putting in, is correlated with learning achievement in the language classroom. Furthermore, the hypothesized model in this study predicts that ethnolinguistic vitality will influence individual learners in regard to the Attitude/Motivation Complex. How a learner sees the vitality of his own ethnolinguistic group can significantly affect his attitudes and motivation in second language learning. Objective ethnolinguistic vitality, as reflected by the social structure of the speech community under investigation, functions similarly, but to a lesser degree. It is through the individual's subjective perceptions that the social forces manifest themselves (Fig. 1).

Attitudes are formed through interaction with one's social environment and are reflections of cultural beliefs. Gardner (1979) has stated that:

> the motivation to learn a second language has been conceptualized as a combination of a positive attitude (desire) to learn the language and the effort expended in that direction .... Social attitudes are relevant to second language learning not because they directly influence achievement but because they serve as motivational supports .... They make a direct link between the cultural milieu and the motivation [i.e., the desire and effort] to acquire a second language, and ultimately proficiency in that language (p. 205).

On the other hand, "the vitality of an ethnolinguistic group is that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in intergroup situations" (Giles, Bourhis & Taylor, 1977; p. 308). The structural variables that will most likely influence this perceived ethnolinguistc vitality may be organized under three categories: status,

Fig. 1 Schematic representation of the hypothesized model



demography and institutional support. Status factors include economic, political, social, socio-historical and language status variables. Demographic factors are those relating to the distribution of the group (national territory, concentration and population) and those relating to numbers (absolute number, birth rate, mixed marriage, immigration, emigration). Institutional support factors include representation of the ethnic group in mass media, education, government, industry, religion and culture. These factors are suggested as being influential in determining the overall vitality of the group.

The variables subsumed under the Attitude/Motivation Complex are among those whose validity has been tested. They are adapted from the "Attitude/Motivation Test Battery" of Gardner & Smythe (1981). All of the variables have been proved to be reliable indices of a second language learner's orientation and motivation in the learning process.

The rationale behind this model is that perceived ethnolinguistic vitality, despite its ultimate impact on learning outcomes, does not exert direct influence on second language achievement. This position can be understood as follows.

Language learners are subject to various kinds of influences within the social milieu. In addition, "most school learning involves the acquisition of knowledge or habits which are already part of the make-up of the culture with which the student identifies. Such is not the case with second languages, however" (Gardner, 1979; p. 193). Acquiring a second language is not merely remembering new vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. It means adjusting oneself psychologically to the new culture,

acquiring symbolic elements of a different ethnolinguistic community with conscious effort. Learning a second language involves more than grammatical items because:

> an individual successfully acquiring a second language gradually adopts various aspects of behaviour which characterize members of another linguistic-cultural group. The learner's ethnic tendencies and his attitudes towards the other group are believed to determine his success in learning the new language. His motivation to learn is thought to be determined by his attitudes and by his orientation towards learning a second language (Lambert, 1963; p. 114).

1.4 Operational definitions of key terminology

A number of terms will be used again and again in the present discussion. In order to avoid confusion and misunderstanding, operational definitions of these terms are provided here, with particular reference to learning English as a second language.

Sociocultural factors: These include not only structural factors related to the society as such (its economy or political system) but also traditions, cultural beliefs and values derived from this particular community.

Ethnolinguistic vitality: The vitality of an ethnolinguistic group is that quality which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in intergroup situations.

Psychological factors: These factors are those pertinent to the internal processes actively invoked during learning a second language (in this case English). They do not operate in a stimulus-response mode. Rather, they serve as mediational variables affecting overt behaviours.

They are included in the Attitude/Motivation Complex.

Attitudes: These represent the perceptions and beliefs of the learners towards numerous social objects in their immediate environment. The social objects may be concrete things such as speakers of different languages, or they may be abstract entities like established institutions, intergroup interactions, or learning experiences.

Motivations: This refers to those affective characteristics which orient the student to try to acquire elements of the second language (in this case English), and includes the desire the student has to achieve a goal, and the amount of effort he expends in this direction.

Second language learning achievement: This refers to the linguistic outcomes attained, including second language knowledge of such structural aspects of English as vocabulary and grammar, and traditional second language skills, i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking.

1.5 The research questions and the hypotheses

Having examined the theoretical model, several research questions can be formulated with particular reference to the bilingual milieu of Hong Kong:

(1) What is the relationship of the three sociocultural variables - status, demography and institutional support?

(2) Does a difference in perceived ethnolinguistic vitality (measured by status factors, demographic factors, and institutional support factors) of Chinese and native English

speakers in Hong Kong have any influence on attitudes towards learning English and the motivation to learn?

(3) Does the above difference in perceived ethnolinguistic vitality directly affect English learning achievement?

(4) Are the six variables in the Attitude/Motivation Complex - i) Attitudes towards westerners in Hong Kong, ii) Attitudes towards learning English, iii) Interest in foreign languages, iv) Integrativeness, v) Instrumentality, and vi) Ethnocentrism - correlated with English learning achievement, regardless of demographic differences?

(5) Are these six variables interacting with each other in any intelligible pattern?

The aim of this investigation is to seek answers to these research questions. The following hypotheses are postulated:

(1) The sociocultural variables - status, demography and institutional support - are positively correlated with each other.

(2) The higher the subject sees the ethnolinguistic vitality of the Chinese speaking community, the less favourable his attitudes towards the English speaking people and the English language will be. Following the same argument, the higher the subject sees the ethnolinguistic vitality of the English speaking community, the more favourable his attitudes towards the English speaking people and the English language will be.

(3) The strength of perceived ethnolinguistic vitality has no direct effect on English learning achievement.

(4) Five of the six attitude/motivation variables - i) Attitudes towards westerners in Hong Kong, ii) Attitudes towards learning

English, iii) Interest in foreign languages, iv)Integrativeness, and v) Instrumentality - are positively correlated with each other.

(5) Ethnocentrism (vi) is negatively correlated with the five variables named in Hypothesis (4) above.

(6) Except for Ethnocentrism, the attitude/motivation variables are positively correlated with English learning achievement.

(7) Ethnocentrism is negatively correlated with English language learning achievement.

1.6 Significance and limitations of the study

All human beings are language users. In a monolingual speech community, a speaker chooses from his verbal repertoire different speech styles, registers and speech markers to mark his role in verbal interactions according to the contextual requirements. Similarly bilinguals who have two languages at their disposal can switch from one to the other, marking their position and their interpretation of the interaction setting.

Nevertheless, language users are not static sociolinguistic automatons (Giles, 1977). A traditional sociolinguistic approach will claim that with certain contextual clues, the interacting parties will manifest certain linguistic behaviours. Contextual variables are believed to be the determinants of overt linguistic variation. Undoubtedly these variables are the ultimate source of influence; but their effect is not to be seen as a stimulus capable of eliciting an instantaneous response. A language user is probably subject to complex cognitive processes, judging and evaluating (both consciously and subconsciously) the incoming messages before he

actually responds. That is, he is not just an active producer of speech utterances, but an active recipient too.

If this is the case for dynamic dyadic speech communication, it would be interesting to apply this perspective to second language acquisition studies. Since acquiring a second language in a bilingual milieu demands that the language learner face conflicting internal forces similar to those in dyadic communication, e.g., the relationship between the ethnic groups in contact (harmonious or antagonistic), the status of the languages and the speech communities (prestigious or neglected, in the majority or the minority). Attitudinal and motivational factors thus play a vital role in second language acquisition.

In Dulay, Burt & Krashen's analysis (1982), a language learner may use the "filter" to select the kind of language input he considers adequate to the situation. Through the "organizer", he will process the language data which the "filter" lets in and gradually organize the new language system. This learner can "use the linguistic knowledge [he gains] through monitoring to consciously formulate sentences and to correct and edit [his] speech and writing" (p. 72).

Only with new developments in both theoretical perspectives and methodological considerations can there be improvements and innovations in second language acquisition studies. Some psycholinguistic researchers admit that affective factors do affect learning achievement, but they are incapable of tracing the roots of these variables. This is precisely where the social psychological perspective has come into play.

The present research is not without its limitations. Concern has been expressed over whether measurement instruments like Likert's rating scale and self-reporting (techniques long used for exploring in some depth how individuals construe a social situation) do in fact measure accurately the conceptual organization of informants (Oller & Perkins, 1978; Oller, 1982). Besides, statistical procedures are employed to analyze the data which may mean generalizations at the expense of individual differences.

Every precaution has been taken and every effort has been made to avoid bias and to improve the research design. Although the subjects selected share many of the common characteristics of the average secondary school student, the observations drawn are by no means generalizable to all students in Hong Kong. Besides, only one assessment criterion of English language achievement was used, i.e., the cloze test. It would have been much better if other measures, e.g. teachers' ratings, oral interviews, or composition skills, had also been included. Nevertheless, the subjects' English grades in the JSEA, a public examination for F.3 students administered by the Education Department of Hong Kong, were also collected. These grades serve as a checking criterion in data analysis.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It has been pointed out that language attitude is a central concept in various sociolinguistic studies. Cooper and Fishman (1975) have suggested that:

> language attitude appears as a catalyst for a sound change, a defining characteristics of a speech community, a predictor of second language achievement, a reflection of interethnic attitudes, a determinant of interlingual intelligibility, and a determinant of teachers' perception of their pupils' ability. (p. 5)

Sociolinguists suggest that language attitude issues can be classified into four categories: the nature, the determinants, the effects, and the measurement of attitude. Some of the questions Cooper and Fishman (1974) formulate are: 1) Does attitude have a characteristic structure? 2) What are the bases of language attitude responses? 3) To what extent do they reflect a stereotype in the sense of a failure of rationality? 4) What are the behavioural consequences of language attitude? 5) What relationships exist among measurements of attitudes obtained towards an object, towards a situation, and towards the object in that situation?

An oversimplified view of the nature of attitude treats language attitude as only a set of stimulus-response or antecedent-consequence relationships. This is by no means precise because attitude is more likely to be functioning as an intervening variable, featuring a thinking-feeling-acting pattern. This means that language users do not solely generate responses in exactly the same way stimuli are received. Language attitudes mediate between the linguistic environment and the language user's overt performance.

2.1 Ethnicity

Contextual factors are particularly important in second language learning. As far as second language learning is concerned, the relationship of the ethnic groups in question inevitably demands attention. The ethnic groups may either be in close contact or be totally segregated, or more frequently, be one of the points on this continuum. Yet, from the outset, it should be clarified what constitutues a single ethnic collectivity. The possible parameters of ethnicity are "a sense of place; a sense of family relationship; a sense of physical similarities; a sense of common cause; a sense of common religious faith or other traditional belief" (Le Page & Tabouret-Keller, 1982; p. 163).

Speaking the same variety of a language is therefore not a necessary condition for membership in an ethnic group. Just take the case of Hong Kong as an example. Hong Kong Chinese people include speakers of Cantonese, Mandarin, Shanghaiese, Hokkien and Chiuchow. The dialects these Chinese people speak are different, and in many cases mutually unintelligible. Nevertheless, the Hong Kong Chinese people possess the ethnicity parameters mentioned above.

Fishman (1968) indicates that in many cases it is difficult to define languages (as distinct from dialects and registers) and ethnicity (as distinct from nationality, race, and religion). Linguists are familiar with the difficulties and the amount of care needed in distinguishing varieties of languages. But all too often they believe that things like nationality and ethnic origin are sufficiently good labels for distinguishing groups of language speakers. However, as things are complicated in

this world, language groups cannot be so readily compartmentalized. People speaking different languages come into contact more frequently and extensively, in many cases as a result of immigration and settlement in a new country. Hence ethnicity does not just mean a common place of birth and blood relationship. It is not based merely on kinship and common direct experience. Apart from being "a consciousness of national language, with its avowed beauty, subtlety and precision, ... [it is also] a consciousness of national history, pride in national literature with its poets and novelists and with its literary schools, periods and styles.... [Language becomes] something to love, to fight for, to die for, something to safeguard, to develop, to enrich, to bring to others who are less fortunate" (Fishman, 1968; p. 95).

Ethnicity has proven to be a very difficult and subtle concept to define with much precision. However, Fishman (1977) has discussed with great insight the nature and the role of ethnicity and its relationship with language. In the first place, he talks about the major roadblocks to a clearer understanding of the concept "ethnicity". As he sees it, ethnicity is often thought of as a despoiler of civility and modernity, as leading to non-rational extremism in political life. Second, in the field of ideology, ethnicity is often viewed as a by-product of other more basic factors and is rejected as a real dimension of modern life. Third, conceptually, it is often thought that ethnicity is pertinent to minority groups alone. This leads to considering it in connection with issues of discrimination rather than as an aspect of all traditional, large scale self-identifying behaviour.

Fishman (1977) declares that "ethnicity is rightfully understood as

an aspect of a collectivity's self recognition as well as an aspect of its recognition in the eyes of outsiders" (p. 16). There are, he says, three dimensions to ethnicity. The paternity dimension of ethnicity is related to questions of how ethnicity collectivities come into being and how individuals get to be members of these collectivities. This happens primarily through heredity and blood relations. The patrimony dimension is related to questions of how ethnic collectivities behave and of what their members do in order to express their membership, i.e., cultural attributes. Finally, the phenomenology dimension is best understood not only as an actor's descent-related being (paternity) and behaving (patrimony), but also as the meanings that he attaches to his descent-related being and behaving.

In Fishman's (1977) words, "language is the recorder of paternity, expresser of patrimony and the carrier of phenomenology" (p. 25). Language easily becomes more than a means of communication, even more than a symbol of the ethnic message. Indeed, it becomes a prime ethnic value. Cross-over of membership is possible when certain members of one group, after weighing and negotiating the membership benefits, decide to recognize themselves as dissociated from their heritage (paternity) and to cling to a new set of values and cultures (patrimony), giving new interpretation to such a state of affairs (phenomenology).

Fishman's (1977) position can best be summarized by the following schema:

Ethnicity	Equivalents in language behaviour
Paternity (descent-related being)	Inherent native tongue
Patrimony (cultural behaviour)	Language usage pattern (concerning native, second, or foreign languages)
Phenomenology (meaning attached)	Attitudes, interpretation of one's pattern of usage

2.2 Ethnolinguistic boundary

It can thus be seen that maintaining existing the ethnic group culture and language is an important attempt to maintain and clarify group boundaries so as to keep one's own group active and, in the case of minority groups, surviving. Group boundaries and contrasts across these boundaries are necessary for an articulated self-conscious ethnic identity. As Paulston says, "it is clear that language maintenance of an ethnic group reinforces the boundaries between the group and the larger society; boundary maintenance reinforces the ethnic identity of a group and is undertaken for a number of reasons" (Paulston & Paulston, 1980; p. 95).

With studies of language in intergroup contexts, "ethnolinguistic group" is a better measurement label than just "people of the same native tongue" or "people of the same ethnic origin" because the groups may not simply have the same language or the same blood origin.

For a clear and conscious sense of ethnolinguistic identity to develop, an awareness of boundaries between one's own ethnolinguistic group and other groups is essential. A sense of identity is established through these boundaries, the values and the attributes that ingroup members share, and exclusion of those outgroup people who are different.

The nature of ethnolinguistic boundaries may be understood in terms of internal and external criteria. The external criteria are those objective standards that must be fulfilled for membership, e.g., skin colour or fluency in the ethnic language. The internal criteria, on the other hand, are the concepts that group members hold of what constitutes legitimate membership, their beliefs, expectations and aspirations with respect to their group identity. What is important for ethnolinguistic groups is that the members of the same group differentiate themselves from others because they believe they are unique. Ethnicity in this sense is a subjective reality rather than an objective characteristic (Giles & Johnson, 1981).

2.3 Ethnolinguistic identity

The issue of group identity is an essential concept in Tajfel's theory of intergroup relations (see Giles, Bourhis & Taylor, 1977). The theory covers a broad range of intergroup situations, yet, it has important implications for language and ethnicity. In the simplest terms, the theory involves an exposition of the sequence: social categorization - social identity - social comparison - psychological distinctiveness. Categorization is one of the cognitive tools that language users use to define themselves and the outside world. Their knowledge of and the values attached to their membership in various social categories is defined as their social identity and forms part of their self-concept. Furthermore, individuals tend to compare their own group and others on a number of attributes and prefer to belong to groups which give them maximum satisfaction and pride through membership. In other words, group members will attempt to make themselves superior on valued dimensions to members of a relevant outgroup in terms of such items as material possessions, social

power, abilities and personal attributes. Members of subordinate groups (subordinate not necessarily in terms of demography, but more likely with reference to measurement of ethnolinguistic identity) whose social identity is inadequate will change in an attempt to attain a more adequate and positive social identity and, ultimately, psychological distinctiveness. These group members may employ different strategies, or what Tajfel calls cognitive alternatives, either individually or collectively, in order to modify their current status.

The language issue in Greenland, a Danish colony, is a good example of how closely the maintenance of the native language and ethnolinguistic identity is linked (Kleivan, 1979). With the social and economic development of Greenland, Greenlanders have had to learn Danish (the colonial government's language) for personal advancement in society. Yet, there are strong pressures from the general public to keep Greenlandic in the school curriculum and the society at large. The importance of Greenlandic literature, the training of Greenlandic teachers, and the use of Greenlandic in the mass media to preserve the Greenlandic language is deemed an important issue in the debate. The debate is characterized by the view that a Greenlandic identity would be unthinkable if there were no Greenlandic language. The fight for the language is closely related to the desire of the Greenlanders for maintenance as a distinct ethnolinguistic group.

2.4 Speech accommodation theory

If a group member finds his own membership in a certain ethnolinguistic group to be undesirable, what can he do? What are the possibilities for modification of group status? The speech accommodation theory

proposed by Giles, Bourhis & Taylor (1977) suggests that people are continually modifying their speech or speech styles with others so as to reduce or accentuate the linguistic, and hence social, differences between them depending on their perceptions of the interaction context. The speech strategies Giles et al (1977) see as possible cognitive alternatives to alter the status of the group members concerned are convergence, non-convergence and divergence. In other words, these members will adapt their speech styles in terms of linguistic markers to signify their willingness to shift towards or away from the outgroup.

Such is the case for dynamic speech interaction. Is this theory of any value to studies in second language learning? The answer is an affirmative one since language is frequently a criterial attribute of ethnolinguistic group membership, a cue for interethnic categorization, and can readily become a primary symbol of ethnicity as well as the ideal medium for facilitating intraethnic cohesion. At the same time, becoming bilingual so often involves possession of a dual identity - that of the native language group and that of the target language group. It means placing oneself between two cultures, two sets of values and beliefs, and two sorts of conformity as well. Many language learners are confronted with the puzzle as to whether attaining native-like proficiency in another language is at all desirable or whether it is a betrayal of their original ethnolinguistic identity.

2.5 Perceived ethnolinguistic vitality

The issue of ethnolinguistic vitality wa s first propounded in Giles, Bourhis & Taylor (1977). They present a descriptive taxonomy of the

structural variables affecting ethnolinguistic groups (See Fig. 2 on p.40). An integrated theory of intergroup relations and speech accomodation is discussed in the context of this descriptive taxonomy.

Members of an ethnolinguistic group desire to achieve a positive sense of identity and vitality so as to make their own ethnolinguistic group favourably distinct from other collectivities on valued dimensions such as power, economic and political resources, and intellectual attributes. These dimensions are subsumed under three headings: status, demography and institutional support. They should be weighed both objectively and subjectively. As Giles, Bourhius and Taylor write, "whether group members perceive subjectively their situation along the same lines is an empirical question worthy of further exploration. Indeed, it could be argued that a group's subjective assessment of its vitality may be as important as the objective reality" (Giles, Bourhis & Taylor, 1977; p. 318). Besides, group members' subjective assessment of outgroup members' ethnolinguistic vitality may also be crucial in determining patterns of intergroup behaviour. For example, knowledge about group members' subjective perceptions of their own ethnolinguistic vitality, and that of the other group(s), may help account for intergroup attitudes, skills and motivations for second language learning, attitudes towards usage and use of code switching strategies (Bourhis, Giles & Rosenthal, 1981).

It has already been shown that in dyadic speech interaction, speech divergence (i.e., speaking the common language with deliberate deviations from established norms or code switching to another variety) can be an important strategy for making oneself psychologically and favourably distinct from outgroup members. This is the concept "intergroup distinct-

iveness". Under certain sociocultural conditions, many people consider the activity of second language learning, and not necessarily speaking the second language at all, to be a threat to their ethnolinguistic identity. They will then perceive their own group vitality to be low, which has negative bearing on the orientations and efforts put into learning a second language.

Giles & Bryne (1982), trying to establish an intergroup approach to second language acquisition, have referred to "factors affecting individuals' strength of ethnic identification and the perceptions of the social relationships operating between ethnic in- and outgroups" (p. 34). They state that:

> subordinate group members will most likely acquire native like proficiency in the dominant group's language when:
>
> (1) ingroup identification is weak and/or L1 is not a salient dimension of ethnic group membership;
> (2) quiescent interethnic comparisions exist (e.g., no awareness of cognitive alternatives to inferiority);
> (3) perceived ingroup vitality is low;
> (4) perceived ingroup boundaries are soft and open;
> (5) strong identification exists with many other social categories, each of which provides adequate group identities and a satisfactory intragroup status. (p. 34-35)

2.6 Orientations in second language learning

Attitudinal variables have been playing an important role in second language learning studies. As early as the late 40's, Jones (1949 & 1950) reported a positive correlation between index of interest in learning a language and attainment in learning Welsh. Perhaps the greatest interest in this direction of investigation has been shown by Lambert and Gardner and their colleagues.

The first studies (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Gardner, 1960) were carried out with English-speaking high school students in Montreal (a setting with a long history of interethnic tensions) who were studying French. The students were examined for language learning aptitude and verbal intelligence as well as for their attitudes towards the French community and the intensity of their motivation to learn French. The pioneering contribution of these studies was that analysis of the data collected revealed that aptitude and intelligence formed a single factor, which was independent of another factor. The second factor was made up of motivation measures, type of orientation towards language learning, and social attitudes towards French Canadians. Motivation was determined by the subject's "attitudes towards the other group in particular and toward foreign people in general and by his orientation towards the learning task itself" (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; p. 3). In the Montreal setting, students with an integrative orientation were more successful in second language learning than those who were instrumentally oriented.

To follow up these ideas, American students undergoing an intensive French course in Canada were tested for changes in attitude during a six-week study period (Lambert, Gardner, Barik & Tunstall, 1963). It was reported that feelings of social uncertainty or anomie, markedly increased during the course of study. Most of these American students were university students or secondary school language teachers. That they experienced feelings of social disorientation when they concentrated on and commenced to master a second language is good evidence of the proposition that on becoming biligual, one's own ethnolinguistic identity, even if not threatened, is challenged. Consequently the learner has to adjust his own position accordingly.

But there are instances where bilingualism serves as an addition to the subjects' self-perception. In another study (Peal & Lambert, 1962), bilingual children had markedly more favourable attitudes towards both language communities than monolingual children who definitely favoured one ethnolinguistic group over another. The parents of bilingual children were viewed by their children as holding the same strongly sympathetic attitudes, which was not the case for the parents of monolingual children. Contrasted with the previous observation of the six-week immersion programme, the significance of this study is that it shows the importance of environmental support which is absent in the former context where the subjects were isolated from their acquainted environment.

From these studies, two orientations are identified towards the learning task are identified which presumably define the extremes on a continuum. Integrative orientation characterizes those individuals who learn a second language in order to identify with and eventually become members of the second language community. Instrumental orientation refers to pragmatic or utilitarian reasons for learning a second language such as getting ahead in one's occupation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Spolsky (1969) has used an instrument to compare a subject's attitudes towards speakers of his native language and towards speakers of a foreign language. This technique has been called an indirect measure of attitudes and could be more reliable than other direct techniques. He asked the subjects, who were foreign students just arriving in the United States to attend American universities, to rate themselves, their ideal self, their compatriots, and native speakers of English on a list of thirty personality attributes. It was found that "the subject's attitude to

speakers of the second language will have a great effect on how he learns. A person learns a language better when he wants to be a member of the group speaking that language" (p. 281). Furthermore, Spolsky discovered that there is a clear correlation between integrative motivation and English proficiency.

Pierson & Fu (1982) have combined this indirect rating technique with the direct questionnaire method to test Hong Kong secondary school students. They found that Hong Kong youths tend to rank westerners high on many stereotypes. However, "one result of the data analysis is an indication that [second language] achievement is related to a strong sense of cultural identity, something akin to a healthy self-concept" (p. 214). This suggests that integrativeness in second language learning does not necessarily destroy self identity.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) have attempted to identify the relative role of the two kinds of learning motivations. They studied the students learning English in the Philippines where English has a very special status. It has become the language of economic and social life, and the major medium of instruction in a multiethnic nation, though it is rarely used as a home language. Progress in second language development was reported not just among subjects with an integrative outlook, but also among those learning for instrumental reasons.

It has been shown that both kinds of learning motivations are important in promoting second language learning and attainment of bilingualism. Similarly, the absence of the integrative and often the instrumental motive as well has resulted in the failure to establish a

bilingual state in Ireland (O'Brien, 1977).

The language shift in Ireland has resulted in the Irish population adopting English as the major medium for communication, although this shift was not accompanied by favourable attitudes. The Irish people have negative feelings towards the English. But in face of the socioeconomic and political exigencies in language use that go alongside historical changes in language use, they have a possibly reluctant instrumental motivation in learning the English language. The majority of the Irish population see the Irish language, which is one of the oldest and richest in Europe, as antiquated, agricultural, and backward. Most of the Irish are not psychologically prepared to adopt various attributes of the Irish speaking population, who only comprise 6% of the total. Although Irish has been made a compulsory subject in school and a prerequisite for employment in the civil service, this has not enhanced learning motivation of any kind.

Bruder and White (1979) comment on the same situation. In Ireland, they argue, attitudes do have behavioural consequences, and in the long run have an independent effect on language maintenance, despite the fact that attitudes do not have a direct effect on the individual's own language behaviour. "The place to look for the behavioural consequences of such attitudes" they say, "is not in the immediate contexts of language use. Attitudes towards Irish as an ethnic symbol, for example, show very strong correlations with attitudes towards Irish language policy support" (p. 65). By supporting this policy, language attitudes could develop, having a long term effect on language behaviour and language survival. These attitudes could affect concrete language policies which deal directly with supports

for learning Irish, opportunities to use Irish, and norms favouring the use of Irish in various societal contexts.

Notwithstanding evidence to support the importance of learning orientations, the role of the integrative and instrumental motives is not without criticism. Macnamara (1973) has cast doubt on the role of attitudes in learning a second language. In his opinion, favourable attitudes are of minor importance because communication of necessity might overpower attitudes. In addition, he believes that the school situation is absurd, in the sense that students are forced to talk for the sake of talking and the environment is nothing like a real life situation. Classroom conversations seem remote, unreal and often lifeless when compared with the communication between actual interlocuters in daily life. It is the artificiality of school language, but not students' attitudes, that according to Macnamara underlies poor language competence among students.

It is of course true that the second language classroom is different from the natural acquisition context. But this does not immediately relegate attitudinal factors to a state of worthlessness. The kind of attitudinal factors that operate in the classroom context might be different. So might the ways in which they function. Edwards (1983) comments on Macnamara's argument: "In fact, attitudes are clearly of considerable importance (in language learning, and in other subject areas) precisely because of 'artificiality', i.e., given that a context is not perceived as pertinent to real life, or is not based upon necessity, then attitudes may make a real difference" (p. 227).

Oller and his colleagues have conducted a series of studies in

various places, using different subjects, to clarify whether the learning setting has any impact on learning orientations. Chinese speaking foreign students studying in American universities (Oller, Hudson & Liu, 1977) and Mexican American women in a vocational school in New Mexico were chosen as subjects in an English as a Second Language setting. It was found that "whereas the Chinese subjects were apparently instrumentally motivated to learn ESL in order to enjoy certain material benefits, they were not particularly negative towards American people. By contrast, the Mexican Americans ... appeared to be anti-integrative to have instrumental orientation towards Anglo-American culture" (Oller, Baca & Vigil, 1977; p. 182). Such an observation is not hard to explain, as Oller et al (1977) have also admitted, because the Chinese subjects came from relatively well-off backgrounds and went to the United States by choice, while the Mexican Americans could easily identify themselves with the colonized and suppressed minority of Chicanos of the Southwest.

This is exactly where the concept "intergroup relationship" comes into play. It is insufficient to say that the two groups of subjects were similar in that they all studied English in an ESL setting. They had different types of contact and different perceptions of the target language group. Yet one common finding can be distilled. The identity rating scales used by Spolsky (1969) seemed quite reliable because they measured attitudes and responses indirectly. The two groups were similar in one respect. ESL proficiency test results were correlated with subjects' attitudes towards themselves and towards members of their own language group, and with how they would like to be. In other words, the subjects enjoyed a positive and strong perceived ingroup vitality when they achieved high scores in the ESL proficiency test.

In another study (Chihara & Oller, 1978), adult Japanese learning EFL were examined by the same measurements. It was found that the relationships between attitudes and attained proficiency observed in this study were much weaker than those in the other studies reported. This led Oller to question the validity of the attempted affective measures. In a later publication, Oller & Perkins (1978) have argued that the validity of attitude measures used at present might be low and there could be other plausible sources of non-random but extraneous variance in measures of affective variables.

It might be argued that it is attainment in the target language that causes a positive or negative attitude. One has to admit that language proficiency might have a sustaining effect on positive motivations. For advanced learners, who have already overcome many of the obstacles (psychological as well as cognitive) in the process of learning a second language, attained second language proficiency might influence learning orientations. But what about those who have not yet reached a high enough level of attainment to allow the attained proficiency factor to operate? The majority of learners are in this category. This is the place where motivation to learn the second language is important.

Gardner has defended his position about the importance of attitudes and motivations and their measurements in second language learning (Gardner, 1980; Gardner & Gliksman, 1982). Furthermore, Gardner (1979) has conceptualized their efforts over the years into a unified theoretical model. There are four categories of variables: social milieu, individual differences, learning contexts and outcomes. He has deliberated on the relationships among these variables and concluded that attitudes are

important for second language acquisition "because they serve as motivational supports rather than as direct 'determinants' of achievement" (Gardner, 1979; p. 218).

So much for discussion of the effects of learning orientations on learning achievement. Perhaps it would be worthwhile at this stage to introduce a distinction between positive and favourable attitudes made by Edwards (1983): "The two terms need not, after all, be synonymous; a positive position is one of certainty or assurance, but it need not be pleasant.... [We] might say that the attitude of the mass of the [Irish] population towards the English language was positive and instrumental, but not favourable (and certainly not integrative)" (p. 226).

At the beginning of this chapter, issues like ethnolinguistic identity and perceived ethnolinguistic vitality were also examined. But there seems little theorizing to integrate the above mentioned concepts. Clement (1980) has investigated the relationships between the following: (1) structural characteristics of the milieu, i.e., composition of the language community; (2) individual meditational processes, and (3) individual learning outcomes.

The present researcher's interest coincides with the above position. The focus of attention is directed towards "How do the learning orientations originate?", and not just towards "What are the learning motivations?"

Past research results are somewhat confusing and conflicting in that the integrative orientation is sometimes shown to be superior to the

instrumental orientation, while the opposite is true in other studies. This problem probably arises as a result of lack of awareness to attend to all characteristics of the learning contexts. To overlook these variables in the discussion of learning motivations would be inappropriate because no two speech communities are exactly the same. Attempts to enumerate all probable learning motivations would fail as it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw generalizations at the level of individuals without specifying the contextual constraints.

Clement (1980) states explicitly that "the conditions prevailing in the milieu, i.e., the relative ethnolinguistic vitality of the groups present, will influence what has been labelled the primary motivational process" (p. 149) in his model. This process consists of the operation of two antagonistic forces: the desire to become an accepted member of the other culture (integrativeness) and the fear that such belonging might result in the loss of one's mother tongue and culture (fear of assimilation). The important determinants of these two forces are the relative ethnolinguistic vitality of the first and second cultural groups.

In a unicultural setting, or where one's own culture predominates, integrativeness and fear of assimilation will exert positive and negative influences respectively on the motivation to learn the second language, and eventually these learners will become less competent in communicating with the second language group than those who manifest favourable attributes.

Clement (1980) further states that in a multicultural setting, or where there is nothing like cultural monopoly, a secondary motivational process may be operative, which is essentially related to the self

confidence experienced by the individual when communicating in a second language.

Aspects of interethnic contact in multicultural settings include frequency of contact and the quality or pleasantness of such contact. Both of these factors are crucial to the development of self-confidence and, ultimately, communicative competence, linguistic and paralinguistic outcomes. Integrative motivation is correlated with ordinary linguistic achievements such as cloze tests, dictation, and oral skills. At the same time, its relation-ship with paralinguistic learning outcomes ought to be considered too. In one case it was found that the integrative learner does not just score high marks in written tests, but also volunteers more correct answers in the second language classroom (Garder, Smythe, Clement & Gliksman, 1976).

In summary, "the motivation to acquire communicative competence in a second language would be a function of self-confidence [the tendency resulting from the Secondary Motivational Process] and/or of the tendency resulting from the Primary Motivation Process, depending on the context" (Clement 1980, p. 151).

Reviewing the propositions in the discussion on ethnolinguistic identity and vitality, it can be seen that when members of a dominant group acquire communicative competence in a second language, integration will result. If the same skills are acquired by members of a non-dominant group, the probable result would be their assimilation into the dominant group's language and culture. Therefore communicative competence should be directly related to integration or assimilation, depending on the relative

ethnolinguistic vitality of the native culture and the target culture. Where bilingualism can be thought of as having cognitively additive or subtractive consequences, integration and assimilation or distancing can be viewed as the social consequences of bilingualism.

The specific characteristics of the learning situation are indeed important in determining learning orientations and learning outcomes. It is no longer true to say that an exhaustive list of universal orientations can be tabulated. This is supported by Clement & Kruidenier (1983) where they show that "while some orientations might be common to a wide array of populations and situations, major variations are found to result from the interaction of situational factors defining the learning situation" (p. 288). The contextual variables they have assessed are: ethnicity of the learner, i.e., being a member of the dominant or subordinate group; milieu (unicultural vs. multicultural) of the learning environment; and salience of ethnic group membership in relation to the existence of a contrasting ethnic group; and the politico-linguistic status of the target group and the target language itself.

3. THE METHOD

3.1 The subjects

In this study, 195 F.4 students from five schools participated in the questionnaire survey. The selection of schools was based on two criteria: English medium versus Chinese medium and urban versus rural. The characteristics of these schools are summarized in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table. 1 Distribution of samples by school types

School	No. of subjects	English medium/ Chinese medium	Urban/ Rural	Mixed/Boys Girls
A	37	EM	Rural	Mixed
B	39	EM	Rural	Mixed
C	43	CM	Urban	Mixed
D	39	EM	Urban	Girls
E	37	EM	Urban	Mixed

Table. 2 Percentage of students coming from English medium vs Chinese medium schools and Urban vs Rural schools

English medium	Chinese medium	Urban	Rural
77.9% (152)	22.1% (43)	61% (119)	39% (76)

Eighty-two (42.1%) of the subjects were boys and 113 (57.9%) were girls. It is regretted that a boys' school was not available in this research for comparison. Nevertheless, sex difference did not have any significant effects, as shown from the analysis in the Results Section. The age range was 14 to 19, with a mean of 16.2.

That F.4 students were selected needs some comment. As shown by

the average age, the subjects were comparatively mature teenagers. For this reason it was assumed that they would be able to assess their own views, to give an account of their feelings and to be cooperative enough to participate in the research. What is more important is that they all took the Junior Secondary Education Assessment (JSEA) in 1982 - 83, a public examination designed by the Education Department of Hong Kong for all F.3 students. English was one of the subjects examined. The subjects' achievement in this English test could thus be recorded as further evidence of their English standard in addition to the cloze test used in this research. Though criticized by some local educational parties, the JSEA test has the advantage of being standardized and used throughout the territory.

3.2 Structure of the questionnaire

There were four sections in the questionnaire (Appendix B & C). The first three sections were predictor variables and the fourth section measured the subjects' level of English proficiency. The instructions and the questions were presented in Chinese, the subjects' native language, except for the section that tests English proficiency. Chinese was used because it has been reported that variations of interviewer language and ethnicity might affect subjects' responses (Pierson & Bond, 1982). Therefore interviewing language (in this case the language of questionnaire) was held a constant in this study.

3.2.1 Predictor variables

3.2.1.1 Perceived ethnolinguistic vitality

This section was an adapted version of the "Subjective Vitality Questionnaire" that Bourhis, Giles & Rosenthal (1981) used on the Greek population in Melbourne, Australia. "Greek" was changed to "Chinese" where the language of the group under examination was mentioned. Elsewhere, "Greek descent" became "Chinese descent" when this ethnolinguistic group was mentioned. "Western descent" and "English" were retained to indicate the target language group and its language.

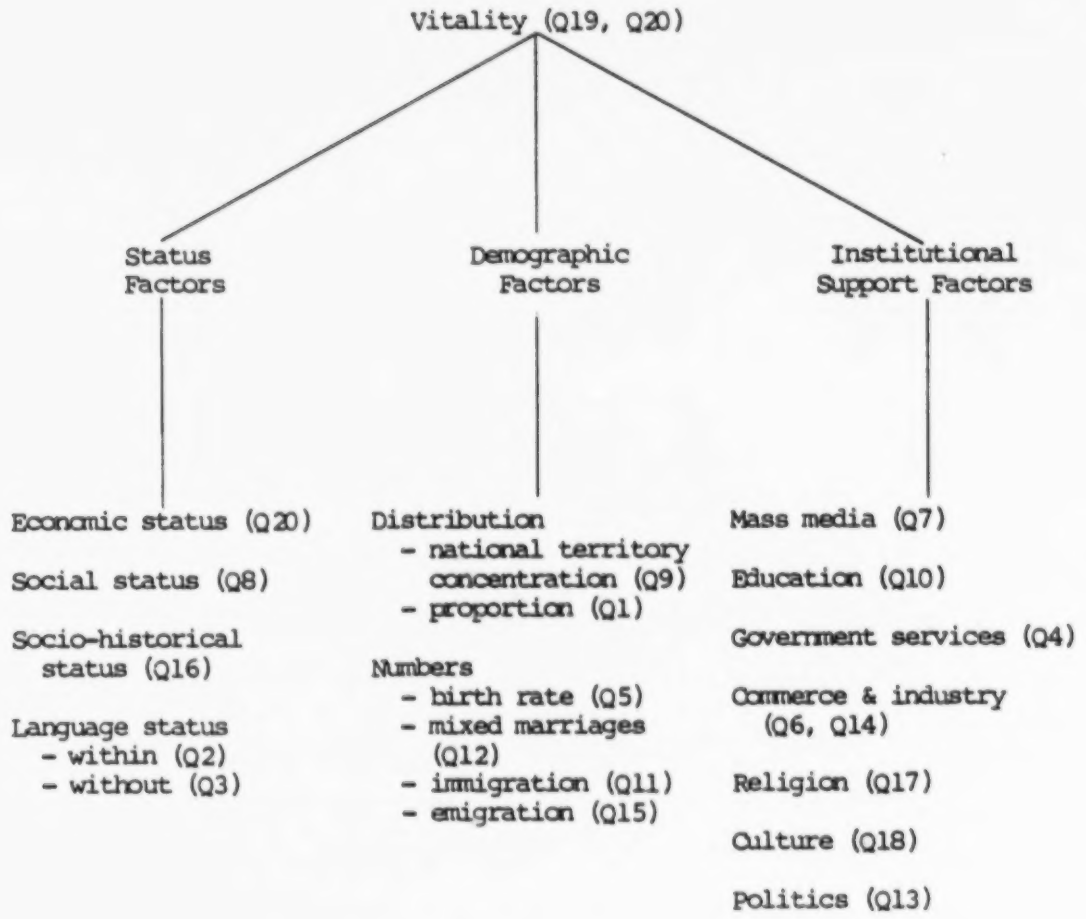
There were altogether twenty-two variables in this section. Twenty-one were designed to assess the subject's judgment on the vitality of Chinese-speaking and English-speaking people with regards to status, demography and institutional support variables (Fig. 2). There was only one rating (in Question No. 22) which asks about the perceived amount of contact between the two ethnolinguistic groups.

Within each of the first twenty-one questions, there were two entries, either "Chinese" versus "westerners" or "Chinese language" versus "English". Thus, there were 43 ratings in all (21 x 2 + 1 = 43). In addition to these scores, six composite scores were computed : ingroup status (IN.STAT), outgroup status (OUT.STAT), ingroup demography (IN.DEMO), outgroup demography (OUT.DEMO), ingroup institutional support (IN.INST), and outgroup institutional support (OUT.INST). The higher the score, the higher the vitality of an ethnolinguistic group.

3.2.1.2 Attitudinal orientation

Each subject was asked to indicate on a seven-point scale the extent to which he agreed or disagreed with twenty-seven belief statements. These

Fig. 2 A taxonomy of the structural variables affecting ethnolinguistic vitality



statements were organized under six headings :

(A) Attitudes towards westerners in Hong Kong

This was the counterpart of the "Attitudes towards French Canadians" factor in Gardner & Smythe's Battery (1981). A high score in this measure, comprising five positive items, indicated a positive attitude towards native English speakers in Hong Kong.

(B) Attitudes towards learning English

"English" replaced "French" to fit the questions into the Hong Kong context. There were four positively stated items in this measure. A high score indicated a favourable attitude towards learning English, an attitude which is conducive to success in second language learning.

(C) Interest in foreign languages

Four items, two positively and two negatively worded, were selected for this test battery. The higher the score, the greater was the subject's interest in learning foreign languages.

(D) Degree of integrativeness

This scale consisted of four positively worded statements. If a subject rated them highly, it was indicative of his tendency to learn English for integrative reasons, i.e., to know better and appreciate the feelings of westerners and their culture.

(E) Degree of instrumentality

In this measure, there were five sentences, all positively stated. If the subject rated them highly, it suggested that he was learning English for pragmatic reasons.

(F) Ethnocentrism

The five statements, agreement to which implied an ethnocentric disposition, were considered to have negative influences on English learning achievement.

Some measures in the original Attitude/Motivation Battery (Gardner & Smythe, 1981) were not included here. Firstly, many of the measures and the items they embrace ask for more or less the same information. Although they may have been used to cross check the responses of the informants, keeping all of them would have been redundant in a small scale research project like the present one. Secondly, if all the items were kept, the entire questionnaire would be too clumsy and time-consuming for the subjects to handle. The subjects might have become fatigued by a bulk of 83 Likert-scale ratings, 21 multiple choice questions and eight sets of semantic differentials. Lastly, not all the items in the Attitude/Motivation Battery were directly relevant to the Hong Kong setting. On the other hand, there was a need to add items which were particularly meaningful to intergroup relationships in Hong Kong.

For instance, a statement like "Foreigners make use of the colonial status of Hong Kong to exploit us" would be meaningful to subjects in Hong Kong, but this might not be the case with Anglophone Canadians learning French. That English enjoys extremely high instrumental status in the local setting is a fact that cannot be compared with the status of French in Canada. No matter how useful and reliable the original measures have proved to be, adaptations have been inevitable to ensure maximum validity in the research design.

It should be noted that in rewriting the items in 3.2.1.1 and 3.2.1.2 from English into Chinese, the translations should bring about no distortions in meaning. The translated version was read by several students in the Department of Chinese of The Chinese University of Hong Kong, who had no prior knowledge of the English version, to ensure that the Chinese expressions were unambigious and natural to native Chinese speakers.

3.2.1.3 Personal background data

In the third section of the questionnaire, three demographic variables were included: age, sex and village of native origin. The self-reported grades for the English test in the JSEA, which all subjects took during the 1982 - 83 school year, were collected to check if they correlated with performance on the cloze test in the fourth section of this questionnaire.

Subjects were also asked if they had any western friends or penpals. This was to ascertain whether personal acquaintance with native English speakers would affect their ethnolinguistic tendencies, learning motivations and learning achievement.

3.2.2 English achievement

A cloze test with twenty-five blanks was chosen to test the English standard of the students. The passage comes from Etherton (1980), a book of revision exercises for students preparing for the JSEA. The passage should be cause no problems of comprehension for subjects at F.4 level. The first sentence was left intact and every sixth word was deleted from

the rest of the passage.

3.3 Administration of the questionnaire

As mentioned earlier, 195 subjects from five schools took part in this study. The questionnaires were distributed to the English teachers of the respective schools in early June of 1983 and were returned within two weeks. The students completed them during their normal English lessons (though not all questionnaires were administered on the same day). The students were supervised by their own English teachers, who had been given a copy of "Guidelines for teachers administering the test" (Appendix D). The researcher himself was not present himself in any of the five schools in order to avoid possible shyness on the part of the students in the presence of strangers.

It was expected that students would finish the questionnaire in 60 minutes. However, all five classes completed the required tasks in approximately 45 minutes. Apparently everyone had enough time to answer the questions.

3.4 Rationale for the cloze procedure

Ever since the cloze procedure was first used by Wilson Taylor (1953) to assess the readability of written passages, this procedure has been used widely for a variety of purposes. According to Oller's (1979) summary, the cloze procedure can serve five different functions. The traditional use is to judge the difficulty level of texts and in turn the appropriateness of certain materials for certain readers. Second, a cloze test may estimate

overall language proficiency (especially in bilinguals and second language learners). Evidence for the reliability of this application can be found in the works of numerous test designers and language teachers. Arguments in favour of this application will be enumerated below, as this is the basis on which the cloze test was selected as an English proficiency measurement criterion in the present research. A third value of the cloze procedure is that its equivalence, if not superiority, to the multiple choice comprehension test has been demonstrated. Furthermore, psycholinguists have put the cloze test to a fourth use - to study textual constraints and their effects on memory, learning and comprehension. As Oller says, "the cloze procedure can be used both to assess the existence of certain sorts of constraints ... and it may be used along with other techniques to measure the strength of the effects of those contextual constraints" (Oller, 1979; p. 359). Finally, if cloze scores are indeed sensitive to these contextual variables, they must also be sensitive to things taught in the language classroom, i.e., the scores may reflect how well the students have grasped the instructional content. Thus, the fifth application of the cloze procedure is to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction.

Tests of proficiency in a second language, in broad terms, are of two types. The discrete point method is used to determine the students' ability to handle specific elements of the skills which are often presumed to enable a speaker to use his language. These elements have presumably been elaborated in the classroom and students are expected to show their understanding and mastery of these items through the discrete point tests. The other form a language test may take, that of the integrative method, gives a general notion of the examinee's capacity to construct or interpret

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messages in the target language (Carroll, 1961).

The discrete point method is more capable of indicating to the teacher which area of grammar the student is weak in. The primary problem with this approach, however, is that one can never be sure how important a given discrete point error is and to what extent it affects communication. It is also impossible to exhaust the grammar of a language and cover all the problematic areas. In actual practice, therefore, listening, reading, writing and spoken skills are tested independently. Test items are organized in such a way that they aim at probing one or more grammar points at a time. An integrative skills test, on the other hand (as the name implies), demands that a student integrate all skills in handling a language. One example of such a test is traditional dictation. The cloze test is another, and this integrtative aspect has been shown in past research findings. As Oller and Conrad write, "the most important argument in its favour is that it requires the student to perform a task which is not unlike what native speakers do in sending and receiving messages" (Oller & Conrad, 1971; p. 187).

Occasionally in life situations, fragmented and mutilated messages need to be reconstructed creatively to retrieve the intended meaning. The mental processes involved in tackling a cloze test are similar to this. On the basis of incomplete information, the subject is required to project a word to fill in a blank in comprehension and complete a sequence. Not only are the receptive/passive skills of language processing invoked, but also the productive/active aspects. To complete the entire passage, some 20 to 50 blanks have to be dealt with. Two processes are invoked at the same time: a process of analysis by synthesis and a process of synthesis by

analysis (Oller, 1973). That is, the examinee determines the correct entry for a certain blank, i.e., synthesis, on the basis of contextual clues, i.e., analysis. The outcome of this very synthesis is the ground on which another analysis is conducted.

The cloze test tends to correlate best with tests that require high-level integrative skills, e.g., dictation (Oller, 1972) or oral interviews (Shohamy, 1982). The strength of the cloze test can also be extended to the area of more structural and grammatical testing. Oller & Conrad (1971) report significant correlation between cloze results and ability in vocabulary, reading, grammar and composition in addition to dictation. Caulfield & Smith (1981) show that the cloze test is linked with the interview technique and the Modern Language Association Cooperative Foreign Language Tests (MLA Tests), the latter being a discrete point test on which the four skills are measured separately. Further still, they recommend that the cloze test replace the MLA Tests and the interview technique in view of the relative ease of construction and administration of the cloze test.

As to the construction and administration of the cloze test, several considerations must be borne in mind. Oller states that "the standard test construction technique, known as the fixed ratio method, involves deleting every nth word (where n usually varies from 5 to 10).... The standard length of the cloze test is 50 items - thus the passage length must be approximately 50 times n" (Oller, 1979; p.375-376). No matter what the level of difficulty of the chosen materials is, scores can still discriminate between the better and weaker learners. He also says that there may be special circumstances where any or all of the suggestions

should be disregarded, in which case "a general guideline of one minute per item could be followed for shorter tests" (p. 377). In the present case, a passage with twenty-five items was used mainly because of the time constraint.

In preparing the cloze passage for the present study, the mechanical deletion method was used. The reason that this method is chosen was that it is difficult to determine whether certain grammatical areas are more difficult than others. For example, are prepositions more difficult than verb inflections? Is the use of articles more difficult for these subjects than the use of conjunctions? Deleting words selectively in the construction of a cloze passage is sometimes heavily influenced by the designer's subjective judgment and shows unqualified bias.

Another issue to be resolved is the scoring method of the examinee's responses. The simplest way is obviously the exact word scoring method, accepting only entries which appear in the original passage. There is a second type of scoring method which counts as correct contextually acceptable answers in addition to the identical ones. One still more complex technique is to weigh the "degree of appropriateness" of the acceptable items and accordingly give them different scores. This method seems satisfactory and intuitively attractive but, in actual practice, suffers from subjective biases of test raters. It is comparatively easy to say what is acceptable and what is not. But to say what is "more" accurate than something else is a matter of much speculation and personal judgment.

The scoring method adopted in the present research is the one that counts any contextually acceptable responses as correct, as this technique

has been demonstrated to be more reliable with tests for second language learners and is linked with other proficiency measures (Oller, 1972). What is acceptable is the answer which leads to no distortions in meaning and is syntactically consistent with the context.

4. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Reliability and validity of research designs

In the course of conducting empirical research, precautions must be taken to ensure that the measuring instrument is really doing what it is intended to by the researcher. Starting from conceptualization of research interest to the final stage of generalization, two aspects of research designs should be examined critically, reliability and validity.

As Gardner defines it, "the concept of reliability refers to the absence of error variance" (Gardner & Smythe, 1981; p. 510). Reliability can be one of two types. The first type of reliability is defined in terms of the internal consistency of the items constituting the test. It has to be ascertained whether questions in the same test instrument which propose to measure one attribute really relate to one another. In other words, internal consistency means all the questions are measuring the same thing.

A second type of reliability concerns stability of measurements derived from the same instrument administered on two different occasions (test/retest reliability), or parallel forms of the same test (alternate form reliability). If test/retest reliability is established, then the test results are not coincidental outcomes and the measured phenomenon is stable - it does not change from one point in time to another. Constructing other tests (or using tests whose reliability has been previously established) to measure the same phenomenon helps the researcher attain alternate form reliability for the research design he develops.

The concept of validity refers to the scientific utility of a measuring instrument (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). Nunnally (1978) states that "Psychological measures serve three major functions: (1) establishment of a statistical relationship with a particular variable, (2) representation of a specified universe of content, and (3) measurement of psychological traits. Corresponding to these are three types of validity: (1) predictive validity, (2) content validity, and (3) construct validity" (p. 87).

The predictive validity of test designs are best demonstrated by correlating the predictor variables with performance or achievement variables. Should the results be significant, the predictor variables are good and valid. Furthermore, if this correlation can be shown to be persistent across demographic and time differences, the measurement techniques can be said to be stable and reliable.

If a test battery really measures what it claims to measure, two major standards have to be met to ensure content validity: (1) a representative collection of items and (2) sensible methods of test construction (Nunnally, 1978).

Content validity can be assessed with the following procedures. In the very beginning, propositions are first formulated in conceptual terms. The next step is to transform these abstract ideas into operationalized definitions and measurable forms. Very often, psychological traits, attitudes and perceptions are covert in nature. The test should therefore be constructed in such a way that, on the one hand, it enables the respondents to express overtly these hidden qualities. On the other, it should accurately record these manifestations.

Another decision the researcher has to make concerns methods of data collection, e.g., such as questionnaires, observation and evaluation, self report, and open-ended questions, etc. Like much of the past research in the field of second language acquisition, the research reported here employs the questionnaire method with a Likert scale. This technique has demonstrated that it produces highly reliable results (Summers, 1970; Nunnally, 1978). Besides, like the multiple choice technique, ratings obtained from questionnaires can easily be quantified and compared and serve as data for further statistical analyses. However, this method is not without its limitations. One concern over this technique is that it limits the range of subjects' responses. The respondents are not allowed to react freely, but can only respond according to a pre-structured format. The remedy for this deficiency of the Likert scale is to survey thoroughly and carefully the characteristics of the sample pool and include every possible source of influence on elicited responses. For example, in this research, which intends to explore the subtle and complicated process of learning a second language in the classrooms of Hong Kong secondary schools, factors which are relevant to bilingual speech communities in general, and Hong Kong in particular, had to be listed. This was mainly done by reviewing past research findings based on the Hong Kong community and examining the characteristics of the second language learning context. Attention then had be directed to eliminate redundant items and modify others to fit the context studied.

Whether items selected are representative or not may be further tested by item analysis procedures. This analysis

> provides an indication of the degree of agreement or overlap between each individual item and the total test, that is, the extent to which each item measures what the total test measures. The

purpose of this procedure is to identify those items that best agree with the test and will thus yield the greatest degree of internal consistency (Tuckman, 1978; p. 181).

The preliminary choice of items is largely an intuitive endeavour of the test designer combined with logical considerations. But item analysis is the empirical evidence of the designer's assertions. It can thus be seen that a measurement instrument with content validity is also one that possesses internal consistency reliability.

The third type of validity of research designs, construct validity, is best assessed by using factor analysis to determine whether the various measures included in a test instrument do relate to one another as they should if the underlying theoretical model is correct (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). That representative items are selected to appear in a test, (i.e. to establish content validity) is insufficient to render the test battery good. Evidence must be gathered as to whether items are organized not just in a conceptually convincing manner, but also in a logically and empirically convincing one. Factor analysis is capable of unmasking relationships among superficially unrelated variables or variables whose interrelationships are not yet determined. If the theoretical construct under investigation really possesses construct validity, then the variables it subsumes should be correlated if they are predicted to be so (convergent validity), or should be shown to be independent of each other if they are hypothesized to be unrelated (discriminant validity), despite test method variance.

From the above discussion, it can be seen that if content validity, construct validity and predictive validity are hard to determine, three

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sources of inconsistencies may emerge from the research findings. They are, respectively, statistical, contextual and conceptual errors (Gardner, 1980). These errors explain some of the discrepancies frequently found in research findings which are originally expected to agree with one another.

Firstly, inconsistencies due to contextual reasons may be interpreted in terms of different social contexts within which the studies are conducted. This is especially true with second language acquisition research where settings differ not only geographically but also structurally. Inconclusive as these studies may seem, their focus should be on not only similarities, but also on similarities in the face of dissimilarities. The Canadian setting is definitely unlike the Hong Kong setting. This is true also of the case of immigrants in the United States. A positive approach to handling discrepancies in research results is not to cast immediate doubt on them. Rather, one should watch for the social and cultural factors which moderate the effect of certain predictor variables and in turn bring about irregularities in results.

Conceptual biases can lead to the second type of invalidity, construct invalidity. The investigator may make mistakes in observing, weighing, organizing and measuring the variables concerned. This can have serious consequences on the conclusions drawn because it often means that the investigator, being unaware of this error himself, claims something to be true which in fact is not.

The statistical reason for invalidity in research designs is the last category of error variance to be discussed here. As all samples are just one segment (though usually considered a representative segment) of the

total population, the possibility that the parts are not equal to the sum cannot be ruled out. A certain correlation is described to be significant at the 0.05 or 0.01 level. What this means is the probability of obtaining a non-representative sample from the subject pool concerned with the stated attributes is less than five times or once in one hundred trials. Sometimes the researcher might draw the wrong conclusion that no association exists when there is actually a significant non-zero correlation in the population but the sample chosen does not reflect this. In other cases, the sampled response may show a negative correlation when there is actually a positive one, and consequently the researcher might be tempted to believe this observation to be a true reflection of reality. It should always be borne in mind that, owing to limitations in time and physical resources, it is never possible to collect opinions from each and every member in a population as is done in a census. Generalizations, therefore, tend to sacrifice individual differences.

Nevertheless, this does not mean generalized conclusions cannot or should not be drawn. Conclusions should be attempted, but only with their limitations specified.

4.2 The perceived ethnolinguistic vitality component

Table 3 is a summary of the mean scores of the items in the PEV (perceived ethnolinguistic vitality) component. The subjects recognized the fact that the Chinese people in Hong Kong are in the overwhelming majority both in terms of actual percentage and proportion (Q.1: 87.15%, t=56.85; Q.9: 6.75, t=45.17). The birth rates of the two groups were perceived to be roughly equal (Q.5: Chinese 4.72 and westerners 4.51,

Table 3. Mean scores of the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality items (with standard deviations)

Variable	In.group: Mean (s. d.)	Out.group: Mean (s. d.)	t-value
1. Population percentage (%)	87.15 (13.56)	12.56 (13.38)	
(Likert scale)	6.43 (6.43)	1.46 (0.81)	56.85***
2. Regard (H. K.)	3.82 (1.44)	6.37 (1.03)	-19.94***
3. Regard (International)	2.56 (1.54)	6.63 (0.90)	-31.93***
4. Use in government	5.93 (1.52)	2.87 (1.94)	17.24***
5. Birth rate	4.72 (1.97)	4.51 (1.48)	1.19
6. Economic & business control	4.96 (1.27)	4.92 (1.29)	0.27
7. Use in mass media	5.08 (1.94)	4.27 (1.45)	4.68***
8. Group regard	5.04 (1.33)	5.32 (1.30)	-2.16***
9. Population proportion	6.75 (0.56)	2.49 (1.19)	45.17***
10. Use in schools	5.36 (1.44)	4.91 (1.60)	2.93**
11. Immigration	4.12 (1.73)	3.96 (1.38)	1.04
12. Intermarriage	3.68 (1.52)	4.16 (1.51)	-3.12**
13. Political power	3.86 (1.61)	5.20 (1.79)	-7.71***
14. Use in business	4.08 (1.51)	5.87 (1.40)	-12.10***
15. Emigration	4.74 (1.47)	3.63 (1.44)	7.58***
16. Cultural pride	4.71 (1.65)	5.02 (1.46)	-1.95*
17. Use in religious worship	5.02 (1.70)	3.92 (1.66)	6.43***
18. Cultural activities	5.19 (1.58)	5.13 (1.36)	0.38
19. Present influence	5.44 (1.28)	5.32 (1.35)	0.85
20. Wealth	4.51 (1.29)	5.63 (1.05)	-9.39***
21. Future influence	5.53 (1.41)	4.24 (1.85)	7.76***
22. Contact btw. Chinese & westerners	4.68 (1.59)		

Ingroup : Chinese Outgroup : Westerners

degree of significance: *** < 0.001 ** < 0.01 * < 0.05

t=1.19). More Chinese move into and out of Hong Kong (Q.11: 4.12, t=1.04; Q.15: 4.74, t=7.58) when compared with westerners (Q.11: 3.96; Q.15: 3.63). The last demographic factor measured is the intermarriage tendency. It was discovered that the subjects think that more westerners marry people of other ethnic origin than Chinese do (Q.12: Chinese 3.68 and westerners 4.16, t=-3.12).

From the above results, the conclusion can be drawn that the subjects feel the Chinese people in Hong Kong face no threat from westerners in terms of number. Though comparatively more Chinese move out of Hong Kong, it is compensated for by a higher number of immigrants coming into the territory mostly from mainland China.

As for the status of the Chinese and the English languages, both locally and internationally, English enjoys far higher regard (Q.2: 6.37, t= -19.94; Q.3: 6.63, t=-31.93). Furthermore, the Chinese language is thought of as less valued internationally than it is in Hong Kong (Q.2: 3.82; Q.3: 2.56). This comes as no surprise as this is really the case around the world despite the fact that the Chinese make up about one-fourth of the world's population. Following this line of observation, it was found that westerners are also more highly regarded in Hong Kong than the Chinese people (Q.8: Chinese 5.04 and westerners 5.32, t=-2.16). This conflicts with the common belief that a majority group should be better regarded. But the perception of the subjects in this research coincides with that of the general population in Hong Kong. The perception probably results from a reluctant admission about the colonial nature of the the Hong Kong situation.

The above findings are best examined in light of Q.20. Westerners are thought of as being considerably wealthier than Chinese (Q.20: Chinese 4.51 and westerners 5.63, t=-9.39). They are also prouder of their cultural history and achievements (Q.16: Chinese 4.71 and westerners 5.02, t=-1.95).

These observations with reference to status factors support the common impression that westerners and their language are superior, more prestigious and more highly esteemed in Hong Kong. Mean scores on the institutional support factors are as follows. The Chinese language is more often used in connection with government services such as health clinics and social welfare (Q.4: Chinese 5.93 and English 2.87, t=17.24). This is probably because most subjects interact with civil servants of lower ranks, where Chinese is used as the language for communication. It is commonly believed that within the civil service English is used as a medium of communication, even among Chinese, mostly in the written medium and, to a certain extent, the spoken medium also.

The English language is also perceived to be used more frequently in business institutions (Q.14: Chinese 4.08 and English 5.87, t=-12.10). On the other hand, Chinese is reported to be the more often used language in mass media (Q.7: Chinese 5.08 and English 4.27, t=4.68), primary and secondary schools (Q.10: Chinese 5.02 and English 4.91, t=2.93) and religious worship (Q.17: Chinese 5.02 and English 3.92, t=6.43). Furthermore, though westerners have more political power in Hong Kong (Q.13: westerners 5.20 and Chinese 3.86, t=-7.71), they have slightly less control over economic and business affairs (Q.6: westerners 4.92 and Chinese 4.96, t=0.27). This is probably due to the fact that many well-known businessmen

who are active in the local property and stock markets are Chinese. Lastly, both Chinese and westerners are approximately equally well represented in the cultural life of Hong Kong (Q.18: Chinese 5.19 and English 5.13, t=0.38).

When the subjects were asked how strong and active they think Chinese and westerners are in general, they report that the Chinese group prevails (Q.19: Chinese 5.44 and westerners 5.32, t=0.85). The margin the Chinese gain widens when the subjects are asked to project twenty to thirty years time into the future (Q.21: Chinese 5.53 and English 4.24, t=7.76). This inevitably leads to the conjecture that the respondents must have taken into account the political future of Hong Kong. By the future, westerners, the British in particular, will have lost much of the status and institutional support which they are apparently enjoying at present. That the respondents report such perceptions is noteworthy, as it may influence their attitudes towards learning English and also their attitudes towards westerners (whose strength the respondents think is fading). In general, moreover, the subjects feel that there is a moderate degree of contact between Chinese and westerners (Q.22: 4.68).

Table 4. Mean scores of the six composite factors from the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality component (with standard deviations)

Factor	Ingroup: Mean (s. d.)	Outgroup: Mean (s. d.)
STATUS	4.11 (0.83)	5.77 (0.67)
DEMOGRAGHY	4.85 (0.65)	3.42 (0.54)
INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT	4.91 (0.75)	4.61 (0.72)

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It is not easy to draw a unified picture from the complex data extracted from the PEV component (Table 4). Chinese people and the Chinese language have more institutional support than westerners and the English language (IN.INST, 4.91: OUT.INST, 4.61), but the status of the Chinese people and the Chinese language is notably lower (IN.STAT, 4.11: OUT.STAT, 5.77) notwithstanding demographic prevalence of the Chinese ethnolinguistic group (IN.DEMO, 4.85: OUT.DEMO, 3.42). However, both groups receive positive ratings on the status and institutional support factors, i.e. the scores for all composite factors exceed 4.

Item analysis was employed to check the content validity of the six composite scores. The purpose of this test, as mentioned earlier, was to check whether items subsumed under a certain heading really measure the same phenomenon. Table 5 summarizes the results of this analysis.

The typical procedure for generating item-total scores is to correlate the score for each item with a total score derived from the remaining ones in the same component. For example, in the IN.STATUS factor, there are five items. Item-total correlation coefficients are computed by applying the Pearson Correlation procedure in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences to the item in question and the sum of the other four.

It is observed that in the "Ingroup Demography" factor, four of the six items do not agree with the others. Only "Birth rate" and "Population proportion" meet the 0.01 criterion of significance. It is unsafe to conclude that these two questions are still valid indicators of the IN.DEMO factor because the relationship considered significant here is linked with something which is unreliable. With the "Outgroup Demography" factor, five

Table 5. Item analysis of the items in the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality component

Composite factor	Question No.	Correlation Coefficient	Degree of Significance
IN.STATUS	IN.2	0.3031	0.001
	IN.3	0.2666	0.001
	IN.8	0.2296	0.001
	IN.16	0.2271	0.001
	IN.20	0.2106	0.002
IN.DEMOGRAPHY	IN.1	0.0527	0.240
	IN.5	-0.1809	0.006
	IN.9	0.1937	0.003
	IN.11	0.0507	0.241
	IN.12	-0.0439	0.272
	IN.15	0.0163	0.411
IN.INSTITUTION	IN.4	0.1859	0.005
	IN.6	0.1494	0.019
	IN.7	0.1837	0.005
	IN.10	0.1780	0.006
	IN.13	0.1727	0.008
	IN.14	0.3128	0.001
	IN.17	0.2703	0.001
	IN.18	0.2051	0.002
OUT.STATUS	OUT.2	0.3372	0.001
	OUT.3	0.1492	0.019
	OUT.8	0.2360	0.001
	OUT.16	0.2929	0.001
	OUT.20	0.1859	0.005
OUT.DEMOGRAPHY	OUT.1	0.2504	0.001
	OUT.5	-0.0203	0.389
	OUT.9	0.0635	0.190
	OUT.11	-0.1057	0.071
	OUT.12	-0.0612	0.198
	OUT.15	-0.0155	0.415
OUT.INSTITUTION	OUT.4	0.1908	0.004
	OUT.6	0.2177	0.001
	OUT.7	0.0913	0.103
	OUT.10	0.2258	0.001
	OUT.13	0.1329	0.032
	OUT.14	0.2190	0.001
	OUT.17	0.1898	0.004
	OUT.18	0.1125	0.059

out of six item-total correlation coefficients are not significant, except for "Population percentage", which is significant at the 0.001 level. The reason for the failure of most of the items in these two factors to meet this expectation may be twofold: first, the measurement items may be unreliable; second, these particular questions may have little value for the local setting. The latter appears to be more probable because the Chinese in Hong Kong seldom worry about being outnumbered by westerners. Hence, the subjects' responses to demographic questions do not point generally in one direction.

In the "Outgroup Institutional Support" factor, two of the items, out of a total of eight, have correlation coefficients so low that they fail to reach the 0.05 level of significance. They are Q.7 "language use in mass media" and Q.18 "representation in cultural life".

To test for the inter-relationship of the composite factors in this PEV Component, the statistical procedures Pearson Correlation and Factor Analysis were performed (Table 6 & 7). At first glance, the figures in Table 6 do not seem to be patterned. However, upon further examination, it can be seen that only two of all the correlation coefficients are high enough to reach 0.4 (i.e. $p < 0.001$) - "Ingroup Status" by "Ingroup Institutional Support" and "Outgroup Status" by "Outgroup Institutional Support". All other coefficients are either so low that they do not exceed 0.2 or too low to achieve any statistical significance at all (See Table 6).

Similar conclusions are drawn from Table 7. Three factors are derived from the composite factors in the PEV Component. "Outgroup

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Table 6. Pearson correlation coefficients of the composite factors in the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality component
(*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$)

	IN.STAT	IN.DEMO	IN.INST	OUT.STAT	OUT.DEMO	OUT.INST
IN.STAT		0.0166	0.4079***	0.0906	-0.0463	0.0339
IN.DEMO			0.1237	-0.0325	-0.1374	-0.1655**
IN.INST				0.1863**	-0.0351	0.1226
OUT.STAT					-0.0153	0.3967***
OUT.DEMO						0.0067
OUT.INST						

Table 7. Factor analysis of the composite factors in the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality component

Factor name	Constituents	Factor loading
F1: Outgroup Vitality	OUT.STAT	0.62013
	OUT.INST	0.63894
F2: Ingroup Vitality	IN.STAT	0.62255
	IN.INST	0.64168
F3: Ingroup demography	IN.DEMO	0.63848

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Accumulative %
F1	1.07547	49.9	49.9
F2	0.71763	33.3	83.2
F3	0.36283	16.8	100.0

Demography", the least internally consistent factor with respect to content validity (See Table 5), is not loaded to any of the three derived factors. On the other hand, the composite factors showing significant correlation in Table 6 are grouped together in the factor analysis. "Outgroup Status" and "Outgroup Institutional Support" build up F1: Outgroup Vitality, whereas the ingroup counterparts build up F2: Ingroup Vitality. F3: Ingroup Demography, as its name implies, consists of only one element.

Then, do these observations support Hypothesis (1): "The socio-cultural variables - status, demography and institutional support - are positively correlated with each other"? In broad terms, the answer is no because the results in Table 6 are not very promising. Only some of the composite factors are significantly correlated, but the findings are still meaningful in other respects.

That the derived factors "Outgroup Vitality" and "Ingroup Vitality" are obtained in the factor analysis procedure indicates that the respondents see a distinct difference in the ethnolinguistic vitalities of Chinese-speaking people and English-speaking people. In addition, it suggests that the perceived vitality of an ethnolinguistic group is not necessarily related to the demographic factor.

4.3 The attitude/motivation complex

Examining the data from the attitude/motivation complex, the following observations were recorded (Table 8). Except for three, all the items in this section were rated positively, i.e., with a mean score above four. Subjects did not agree with the statement that they do not wish to make

Table 8. Mean scores of the attitude/motivation complex items

Question no.	Mean	Standard deviation
1	4.02	1.62
9	3.43	1.76
15	4.94	1.52
18	5.02	1.73
26	4.22	1.64
3	6.43	1.14
13	4.61	1.79
17	6.05	1.35
23	4.29	1.94
4	6.51	1.21
8	4.65	1.82
11	6.09	1.44
20	6.11	1.26
7	4.56	1.85
14	4.18	1.92
22	5.67	1.39
25	4.52	1.62
2	5.74	1.53
6	4.69	1.90
12	3.46	1.85
19	6.28	1.13
24	5.80	1.25
5	2.46	1.73
10	4.06	1.68
16	5.28	1.56
21	4.91	1.59
27	4.27	1.65

*Note: Ratings for Q. 3 and 23 have been recoded to be consistent with the rest of the questions in this section. As shown in this table, scores are arranged in ascending degree of agreement.

friends with westerners (Q.5: 2.46). Yet, they did not think that some of the best citizens in Hong Kong were of western descent (Q.9: 3.43). Furthermore, they disagreed that knowledge of a foreign language makes a person respected (Q.12: 3.46).

Among all the statements that were rated positively, six of them have attained mean scores above six. In the "Attitudes towards learning English" factor, the subjects indicated that learning English was not a waste of time (Q.3: 6.43) and they planned to learn as much English as possible (Q.17: 6.05). In the "Interest in foreign languages" factor, they wished they could speak a foreign language perfectly (Q.4: 6.51) and read newspapers and magazines in another language (Q.11: 6.09). In addition, they would like to learn foreign languages other than English (Q.20: 6.11). All these indicate that the students sampled have great interest in learning foreign languages. Lastly, in the "Degree of instrumentality" factor, the subjects strongly believed that no matter what kind of job they take in the future, English will still be very important for them (Q.19: 6.28).

Table 9. Mean scores of the six composite factors from the attitude/motivation complex

Composite factor	Mean	Standard deviation
A: Attitudes towards Westerners in H K	4.30	1.01
B: Attitudes towards Learning English	5.33	1.14
C: Interest in Foreign Languages	5.82	0.96
D: Degree of Integrativeness	4.72	1.11
E: Degree of Instrumentality	5.18	1.05
F: Ethnocentrism	4.18	0.88

Table 9 sums up the ratings on the six composite factors in the Attitude/Motivation Complex. The results here are very important. It can be seen that the ethnocentric tendency of the subjects was not very strong (F: 4.18). Likewise, their attitudes towards westerners were positive, but not high (A: 4.30). The attitudes of the subjects towards westerners can thus probably be described as "indifferent". This can be very true because native Chinese speakers, especially secondary schools students, do not have many chances to meet westerners in daily life. Very few secondary schools in Hong Kong have native English-speakers as teachers. The relatives, neighbours, and acquaintances of these subjects are also largely members of the Chinese-speaking community.

This finding coincides with the one mentioned earlier that the subjects did not feel their ethnolinguistic vitality to be threatened by westerners, with regard to institutional support. Their attitudes towards learning the language of westerners were still fairly favourable (B: 5.33; C: 5.82). Upon further analysis, the reason for their immense interest in learning English was revealed to be more instrumentally (E: 5.18) rather than integratively oriented (D: 4.72).

The twenty-seven items, organized under six factors, showed strong agreement with one another. Only two items (Q.5 and Q.16) have correlation coefficients below the 0.05 level. But actually they fail to reach that level only by a small margin of 0.001 (see Table 10). It was encouraging that twenty-one of the items achieved item-total correlation at the 0.001 level. This means that the probability of the items overlapping accidentally is one in a thousand trials. For the rest, three reached the 0.005 level and one the 0.05 level of significance.

Table 10. Item analysis of the items in the attitude/motivation complex

Composite factor	Question no.	Correlation Coefficient	Degree of Significance
A: Attitudes towards Westerners in Hong Kong	1	0.3380	0.001
	9	0.2014	0.002
	15	0.2941	0.001
	18	0.2943	0.001
	26	0.4259	0.001
B: Attitudes towards Learning English	3	0.3722	0.001
	13	0.4971	0.001
	17	0.4966	0.001
	23	0.4863	0.001
C: Interest in Foreign Languages	4	0.3990	0.001
	8	0.2053	0.002
	11	0.4654	0.001
	20	0.2819	0.001
D: Degree of Integrativeness	7	0.4798	0.001
	14	0.3391	0.001
	22	0.1399	0.026
	25	0.3414	0.001
E: Degree of Instrumentality	2	0.4582	0.001
	6	0.4677	0.001
	12	0.3478	0.001
	19	0.4525	0.001
	24	0.5290	0.001
F: Ethnocentrism	5	0.1177	0.051
	10	0.2587	0.001
	16	0.1177	0.051
	21	0.2490	0.001
	27	0.1830	0.005

Apart from content validity, the Attitude/Motivation Complex attained construct validity as well. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed for the six composite factors (Table 11). Except for "Ethnocentrism", all the composite factors were closely linked to one another, with significance at the 0.001 level. In other words, this supports Hypothesis (4): "Five of the six attitude/motivation variables are positively correlated with each other" is supported. This indicates that these five factors actually have something in common. Collectively, they can be called the "English learning orientations". This is in agreement with previous research studies (Naiman et al, 1978), where an affective factor is distinctly extracted from a pool of potential influencing factors, such as instructional methodology and language aptitude.

Judging from its nature, the remaining factor "Ethnocentrism" should have been correlated with the other five factors in this component, though the correlations were likely to be in the negative direction. The above prediction, which has already been stated as Hypothesis (5) in Sec. 1.4, was partially fulfilled. "Ethnocentrism" was negatively correlated only with "Attitudes towards learning English" and "Degree of integrativeness". Referring back to Table 9, it can be seen that the ethnocentric tendency of the sampled subjects was not high. Perhaps the weak intensity of the ethnocentric factor in itself does not provide a basis strong enough for comparison.

When factor analysis with varimax rotation was applied over the six composite factors, the result suggested approximately the same picture (Table 12). "English learning orientations", loaded with the five learning motivation related factors, is separate from "Ethnocentrism".

Table 11. Pearson correlation coefficients of the composite factors in the attitude/motivation complex
(*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$)

	A	B	C	D	E	F
A		0.3772***	0.3248***	0.3396***	0.3724***	-0.0695
B			0.4803***	0.5325***	0.4289***	-0.3315***
C				0.4946***	0.4558***	-0.0436
D					0.3637***	-0.2001**
E						-0.0917
F						

Table 12. Factor analysis over the composite factors in the Attitude/Motivation Complex

Factor name	Constituents	Factor loading
F1: English learning orientations	(C) Interest in foreign languages	0.72640
	(B) Attitudes towards learning English	0.64154
	(D) Degree of integrativeness	0.62066
	(E) Degree of instrumentality	0.61956
	(A) Attitudes towards westerners in H K	0.50952
F2: Ethnocentrism	(F) Ethnocentrism	-0.60196

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Accumulative %
F1	2.22914	83.6	83.6
F2	0.43871	16.4	100.0

4.4 Perceived ethnolinguistic vitality, affective variables and English learning achievement

From the outset the primary objective of this research has been to identify the role and function of perceived ethnolinguistic vitality in second language learning. One of the methods has been to check whether different perceptions of ethnolinguistic groups will give rise to differences in attitudes and motivation towards learning a second language. This has been formulated as Hypothesis (2): the higher the perceived vitality of the Chinese speaking group, the less favourable the learning motivations are; the higher the perceived vitality of English speakers the more favourable are the attitudes towards the target language group and its language.

Table 13 reports the correlation between the two classes of variables. From these figures, it is obvious that the vitality perceived of native English speakers is closely linked with the subjects' learning motivation. The OUT.DEMO (outgroup demography) factor has already been ruled out as being one of the valid measurement indicators in Sec. 4.2. Again, it does not show any significant correlation with the six variables in the attitude/motivation complex in this analysis. As to the variables in the attitude/motivation complex, Ethnocentrism fails to correlate significantly with most of the variables in the PEV component.

Leaving these observations aside, the remaining results are highly informative. While the subjects believe the English speaking community and the English language to have high social status and high institutional support, they at the same time hold positive attitudes towards westerners

Table 13. Pearson correlation coefficients of the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality variables and the attitude/motivation variables (*** $p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.05$)

	A	B	C	D	E	F
IN.STAT	—	—	—	—	—	—
IN.DEMO	—	—	—	-0.1642*	—	0.1586*
IN.INST	—	0.1424*	0.1463*	—	—	—
OUT.STAT	0.1696*	0.2773***	0.2384***	0.3718*	0.1594*	—
OUT.DEMO	—	—	—	—	—	—
OUT.INST	0.1438*	0.2294***	0.1774*	0.1632*	0.1588*	—

Table 14. Correlation of the JSEA and the cloze test

JSEA results

Grades	No. (%)
A	13 (7.2%)
B	30 (16.6%)
C	27 (14.9%)
D	30 (16.6%)
E	50 (27.6%)
F	22 (12.2%)
G	5 (2.8%)
H	4 (2.2%)

Cloze scores

Full score	:	25
Range	:	6 - 23
Mean	:	15.44
Standard deviation	:	0.29

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Cloze by JSEA

Source of variation	F	Significance
Main Effects JSEA	38.780	0.000

and learning English, great interest in foreign languages, and both integrative and instrumental motivations to learn English. Thus the analysis supports the latter part of Hypothesis (2).

Now that it has been shown that outgroup vitality is linked with the formation of the attitude/motivation complex, the influence of these motivational variables on English language learning achievement needs to be studied. First, to establish the validity of the cloze test adopted in the questionnaire, scores in the cloze test and JSEA were compared. It was found that the cloze scores were highly correlated with the English grades the subjects obtained in the JSEA test (see Table 14).

Then, to see to what extent the six variables in the attitude/motivation complex predicted scores in the cloze test, regression analysis was applied (see Table 15).

Table 15. Stepwise regression analysis of attitudinal and motivational variables in relation to cloze scores

Step	Factor entered	Multiple R	Simple R
1	B (X1): Attitudes towards Learning English	0.37523	0.37523
2	E (X2): Degree of Instrumentality	0.40498	0.29856
3	D (X3): Degree of Integrativeness	0.41070	0.27952
4	F (X4): Ethnocentrism	0.41364	-0.16489
5	A (X5): Attitudes towards Westerners in Hong Kong	0.41410	0.16584
6	C (X6): Interest in Foreign Languages	0.41456	0.24724

Regression equation :

$$y \text{ (cloze score)} = 7.03 + 0.25(X1) + 0.16(X2) + 0.08(X3) - 0.05(X4) - 0.02(X5) + 0.02(X6)$$

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The amount of variance in the cloze scores explained by the combined effect of these six variables was:

$$(\text{Multiple } R)^2 = 0.41456^2 = 0.17186$$

In other words, about one-sixth (17.19%) of the influence affecting a subject's performance in the cloze test came from the attitude/motivation complex. This is significant even though there are other factors such as language aptitude, general intelligence, effectiveness of instruction and extraneous factors which also bring about influence on the level of attained second language proficiency.

The above finding substantiates Hypothesis (6) and (7). Ethnocentrism is negatively correlated with cloze scores (Pearson correlation coefficient = -0.1649, $p < 0.05$), while the other attitude/motivation variables are positively linked with cloze scores (see simple R's in Table 15).

Computing regression analysis for cloze scores by perceived ethnolinguistic vitality factors showed that all six of them jointly account for only 6.61% of the achievement in the cloze test. The Hypothesis (3) predicting that the strength of perceived ethnolinguistic vitality has no direct effect on learning achievement was substantiated.

Another important observation made from Table 15 is that "Degree of instrumentality" is a more influential factor than "Degree of integrativeness" with regard to learning achievement as measured by cloze scores. Encouraged by this finding, an additional analysis was conducted to see to

Table 16. Comparison of the influence of the instrumental motivation and the integrative motivation on cloze scores

Degree of integrativeness	Degree of instrumentality	Cloze scores	No. of cases
HIGH	HIGH	15.92	117
LOW	HIGH	14.68	34
HIGH	LOW	14.30	10
LOW	LOW	12.80	5

Table 17. Summary of the amount of personal contact the subjects have with westerners

	Acquaintance with westerners	Acquaintance with English speaking penpals
Nil	145 (75.5%)	159 (82.8%)
1	21 (10.9%)	22 (11.5%)
2	9 (4.7%)	7 (3.6%)
3	4 (2.1%)	3 (1.6%)
More than 3	13 (6.8%)	1 (0.5%)

Table 18. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Degree of integrativeness by "Acquaintance with westerners" and "Acquaintance with English speaking penpals"

Source of variation	F	Significance
Main Effects	2.176	0.031
Westerners	3.227	0.014
Penpals	1.543	0.192
2-Way Interactions	0.200	0.990

what extent instrumental motivation was more conducive to language learning success.

The analysis procedures were as follows. First, the criterion was set that composite scores for "Degree of instrumentality" and "Degree of integrativeness" would be classified as HIGH if they exceeded four. Scores less than four would be classified as LOW. The following results were recorded (see Table 16).

It is not surprising to find that higher marks were scored by those who were integratively and instrumentally motivated, whereas the lowest scores were reported for those who were weakly motivated in both respects. More important is the observation that those who were only instrumentally motivated to learn English performed slightly better than those who were only integratively motivated. This coincides with the prediction drawn from the regression analysis in Table 15, where "Degree of instrumentality" was also ranked as slightly more significant than "Degree of integrativeness".

Questions were also asked in the questionnaire to see how much personal contact the subjects have had with native English speakers. The majority said that they had not made friends with any westerners (75.5%) and did not have any English speaking penpals (82.8%) (see Table 17). These reports did not have any effect on the ratings in the PEV Component, and vice versa. Neither did these two variables affect cloze scores. Yet, it was noted that Acquaintance with westerners is correlated significantly with Degree of integrativeness (See Table 18).

Data about the native village of the subjects in China were also collected but it was found that they were correlated neither with any of the predictor variables nor with the level of English language learning achievement.

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Most of the hypotheses postulated in Sec. 1.4 were confirmed, either completely or partially. Hypothesis (1) predicted that perceived vitality factors - status, demography and institutional support factors - would be positively correlated. It has been found that "Outgroup Status" and "Outgroup Institutional Support" had the tendency to function jointly as an "Outgroup Vitality" factor. The same is true for the ingroup counterparts, resulting in an "Ingroup Vitality" factor. "Outgroup Demography" was found to be important as well.

Furthermore, second language learning orientations were organized in a patterned manner. Attitudes towards westerners in Hong Kong, Attitudes towards learning English, Interest in foreign languages, Degree of integrativeness and Degree of instrumentality were significantly correlated, confirming Hypothesis (4). Ethnocentrism was found to be negatively correlated with two of the foregoing five variables - Attitudes towards learning English and Degree of integrativeness. This observation partially supports Hypothesis (5).

The important considerations of the model formulated in Section 1.3 are that attitudes are reflections of sociocultural stimuli and they serve to maintain the desire and effort manifested as learning orientations and motivations in the long and tedious process of acquiring the language. Hence, language learning, and second language learning in particular, is viewed as an ongoing cognitive process that mediates between social stimuli and overt learning outcomes. The results gathered in the present research, when put into operational terms, are:

(1) The various attitude measures correlate appreciably with the index of motivation, i.e., Hypothesis (2). This prediction holds true in the present study as far as outgroup ethno-linguistic vitality is concerned.

(2) The index of motivation correlates appreciably with the index of learning in the second language, i.e., Hypotheses (6) and (7). These two hypotheses have been substantiated and it has also been discovered that learning motivation variables account for over one-sixth of the influence affecting English learning achievement.

(3) The attitude measures have little direct importance in English learning achievement, i.e., Hypothesis (3). The actual amount of influence drawn from this source has been shown to be only 6.61%.

In conclusion, the characteristics of a successful second language learner with reference to attitudes and motivations have been exemplified by the causal links in the hypothesized model (See Fig. 1 on p. 8). Yet, interpreting the construct in propositional terms has the advantage of theoretical clarity and avoids ambiguities in understanding. Therefore, the language student learning English in Hong Kong, as reflected by the subjects chosen in this study, will attain a high level of achievement when:

(1) the learner sees learning English to be an enjoyable experience, has strong desires and motivation, and is prepared to put effort into it;

(2) the learner desires to learn English to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of this second language

because of the pragmatic value of English;

(3) the learner shows sympathetic understanding towards westerners and their culture, and desires to learn English to be like representative members of the English speaking community, and to become associated with them;

(4) the learner does not think only highly of the Chinese people and the Chinese culture and does not exaggerate the uniqueness or superiority of being of Chinese-descent;

(5) the learner sees westerners as amiable and values the contributions they have made to Hong Kong society and culture;

(6) the learner shows interest in learning foreign languages and likes to read English books and magazines in the original language version; and

(7) the learner has some personal contact with westerners.

These are the prominent features of the outlook of the successful student who is successful at learning English. They agree with the general observation that proficiency in English is a means for upward social mobility in Hong Kong. Strong identification with the Chinese language does not warrant high social status or societal well-being. These Chinese students do not achieve social distinctiveness from their Chinese identity. They have to seek it somewhere else, probably through bilingual membership.

The above can be considered the answer to the question: "Who is the successful second language learner?" But another question remains unresolved: "Why is the learner successful?"

The answers can again be put in propositional terms. The successful

learner manifests favourable attitudes and positive motivations because:

(1) the learner perceives that westerners and the English language enjoy higher status with respect to economic, political, social and historical variables within Hong Kong; and

(2) the learner perceives that westerners and the English language have institutional support with respect to mass media, education, government, industry, religion and culture within Hong Kong.

Although the subjects in this study do not derive contentment from their Chinese identity and tend to seek it through favourable perception of westerners, it seems that they are by no means ethnolinguistically disoriented. Nor is their group identity vulnerable to subtractive influences of bilingualism or damaged in any way.

What theoretical recommendations can be made? For the subjects in this study, "Degree of instrumentality" is slightly more influential than "Degree of integrativeness" as a predictor of English learning achievement. This coincides with the conclusion of the Gardner & Lambert (1972) Philippine study where both types of learning orientations are important.

> The urban culture of the Philippines is becoming Americanized to the extent that a strong motivation to master English, the language of schooling and business, becomes an endorsement of the culture and a contentment with it. Students of foreign languages will profit more if they can be helped to develop an integrative outlook towards the group whose language is being studied. ... Learning a second language with national and worldwide recognition, ... both instrumental and integrative approaches to the learning task must be developed (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; p. 126).

The learning context for students in Hong Kong is very similar to this. The first recommendation is: students in Hong Kong learning a second

language should be helped to develop both the integrative and instrumental motivations, as it is shown in Table 16 that those who perform best in the achievement test are those who are positively motivated in both respects.

Since the notions of integrativeness and instrumentality were first proposed, linguists have been inclined to put second language learners categorically into two separate groups (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). There has been growing concern that this may not be accurate. Results in Table 12 show that at least for the present subjects the instrumental motive is linked to other integratively based orientations. Hence, the two notions ought to be considered as matters of intensity, but not "yes" or "no", or "all" or "nothing".

It is observed that in this study the number of subjects who have personal contact of any kind with westerners is less than 25% of the sample. Aboud & Taylor (1971) agree that positive attitudes towards out-group people increase with the amount of contact the subjects have with the other ethnolinguistic group. In their Canadian study, they explore how ethnic stereotypes and role stereotypes are differentially employed in the process of person perception and suggest implications for how this might influence cross-cultural interaction. They have found that their subjects tend to judge ingroup members utilizing predominantly role stereotypes (the less biased and more reliable measures in person perception), whereas they rate people from other ethnolinguistic groups with ethnic stereotypes (the more culturally biased and less reliable measures which could lead to less efficient interaction in cross-cultural settings). They further point out that subjects with a higher degree of contact with outgroup members rely less on ethnic cues and show a corresponding increase in the use of role

stereotypes. Results in Table 18 in Sec. 4.4 are in line with Aboud & Taylor say (1971), and it can be noticed that "Acquaintance with westerners" and "Acquaintance with English speaking penpals" promote integrative motivation.

The following is the second recommendation made. Bilingualism induces better understanding of and more contact with "foreigners", which in turn eliminate ethnic prejudices which are largely consequences of strict enclosure and apparently impermeable group boundaries. This argument is sustained by Lamy's (1979) Canadian study in which he examines the relationship between degree of bilingualism (the independent variable) and ethnolinguistic identity (the dependent variable). He has found that "there is indeed a statistically significant relationship between bilingualism and ethnolinguistic identity, and this relationship varies with degree of bilingualism" (p. 28). About three-fifths of the equilinguals - the term Lamy uses to label speakers who are equally competent in French and English - consider their own ethnolinguistic identity as close to each of the language groups, while the percentage is a meagre 15% for unilinguals and 25% for bilinguals.

In what way does bilingualism have an effect on ethnolinguistic identity? "Bilingualism facilitates interaction with members of another ethnolinguistic group; ... interaction [and contact] with members of another ethnolinguistic group does have an impact on ethnolinguistic identity" (Lamy, 1979; p. 34).

Previous studies have argued that convergent linguistic behaviours towards dominant outgroups (i.e., acquiring native like proficiency in the

target language and high achievement in learning the target language) are observed when members of a subordinate group perceive their own ethnolinguistic vitality to be low, and there are no alternatives for maintaining their own group's status position (Giles & Johnson, 1981; Giles & Bryne, 1982). It has been found in the present survey that this may not necessarily be the case. From Table 13, it can be seen that perceived ingroup vitality has little impact on learning motivations and in turn in learning achievement. But perceived outgroup vitality determines to a significant extent the formation of a positive motivation towards second language learning, which gives rise to a high level of achievement in learning the outgroup's language.

Third, the puzzle for many language planners and educationalists is whether cultural pluralism or assimilation is the key to this issue. This question is certainly connected to the relative status of the target language and the native language of the learners, and the two groups concerned. Yet one point is definitely true. That is, second language learning in most cases means second culture acquisition as well, and an empathetic understanding of another culture should be developed. Thus, the culture of the target group should become a crucial part of second language instruction. In this particular study, it seems the culture linked to the English language is neither solely British nor American, but a westernized culture in general.

Tuttle, Guitart & Zampogna (1979) have studied the effects of cultural presentations on attitudes of foreign language students. The subjects in this study were native English speakers in the United States learning Spanish. They were separated into two groups, one viewing

cultural slide presentations stressing similarities of Puerto Rican life-styles with the Amercian lifestyles, and the other watching slide presentations emphasizing differences. It was found that emphasis on similarity in lifestyles brought about a positive change in attitudes towards Puerto Ricans and a decrease in ethnocentric orientation. Language instruction should limit the use of materials stressing differences in the two cultures. As Tuttle, Guitart and Zampogna write, "if students have been in a foreign language program, but do not want to associate with people of that language, then the foreign language teacher has achieved little in terms of the human element of structure" (p. 182). This has important implications for teaching.

Schumann (1976) has also pointed out that social distance is an adverse factor in acquiring a second language. Therefore, no matter whether the target language group is a demographic majority or minority, it should always be stressed that acquiring a new language, and the cultural elements going with it, is a pleasant and mind-broadening experience. Parallel coexistence rather than conflict of cultures is a healthy and civilized practice in the modern world, which can hardly be segregated into separate and isolated parts.

Finally, and also perhaps the most important, is the <u>fourth</u> recommendation made in this discussion section. The efforts to ascertain the validity of perceived ethnolinguistic vitality and the mediation effect it has on the attitude/motivation complex proved to be successful and rewarding. The language learner resembles the mental processor model mentioned in Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982). Structural factors of the learning environment, and the cultural aspects in particular, do have

influence on the learning orientations. These orientations regulate directly and to a significant extent the level of English learning achievement.

The four points summarized above are the theoretical contributions of the present study. On the methodological side, this study is valuable in that it has incorporated some of the useful concepts in the socio-psychological approach to second language learning. A purely linguistics-oriented approach to sociolinguistics treats linguistic variations as independent variables and studies how they affect social interaction, the dependent variable. On the other hand, a strictly sociological orientation views individual language patterns as dependent variables and ascribes their origin to structural factors. The present approach does not take language learners as mere individuals, or simply building blocks of a large speech community, but studies them as individuals in a dynamic context.

St. Clair writes that "one of the characteristics of a successful theory is its ability not only to account for the data within its own discipline but also to provide an explanation across disciplines" (St. Clair, 1980; p. 30). Many of the interdisciplinary studies in linguistics are merely multidisciplinary; they simply require that different approaches to an academic area be presented in sequential order without any attempt to resolve differences in either theory or application. A truly interdisciplinary approach demands that scholars who are at present working within the language related sciences develop new bridges of methodology, theory and applications across their disciplines in a united effort to integrate their efforts fully into a coherent framework of the language sciences.

Given that theories in social psychology have emerged in order to help explain social behaviours, and that language is an important dimension of this area of study, it is possible and indeed desirable to incorporate the conceptual frameworks of social psychology into applied linguistics. It has been pointed out that the social psychological approach "is characterized by attempts to look at the mediation between social factors and individual behaviour by studying the way in which social and situational factors interact with the cognitive, affective and motivational organizations of individuals producing language behaviour" (Fraser & Scherer, 1982; p. 5). They further state that empirical investigations using a combination of experimental and observational models of research are important.

The research reported here has relevance not only for studies in second language learning and teaching. It sheds light on some of the controversial issues in Hong Kong concerning school language policy and societal language planning as well.

The ethnolinguistic identity of Hong Kong people is complex and intricate. They possess a "split personality". On the one hand, with help from the mass media in recent years, Hong Kong Chinese (more than half of them born locally) have grown to take pride in being "descendants of the Dragon" and in identifying superficially with Chinese culture. However, this liking and admiration is only partial. With the sensitive issue of the political future of Hong Kong, and as 1997 draws near, they show considerable reservations about becoming a real member of the Chinese way of social and economic life. They enjoy the cultural heritage of the Chinese, but resist the political consequences.

Then what do they think about westerners and the English language? Since the early 70's, the Chinese Language Movement has flourished and has been very much a matter of ethnocentric rebellion against colonial suppression. A moderate view towards this problem is recognition and acceptance of the status quo. People with this belief will ask for English language education for all so that everyone has the opportunity to climb up the social ladder. But activists in the movement have been demanding re-allocation and more open and equal sharing of social resources for those who can speak only Chinese or whose proficiency in English is not adequate to cope with the normal social requirements. They welcome structural changes and what they are looking for is the removal of all practices that discriminate against those who are not proficient in English. They want to see the elimination of a monopoly by an English-speaking elite. Fu (1975) comments that "[an educational] system developed in early colonial days to educate an English speaking elite for government posts simply does not function in the modern day of mass education" (p. 197).

As the Hong Kong society sees greater demand for democratization, language should no longer be made a tool for social segregation. Chinese and English should receive equal respect and equal emphasis. Their status should neither be overlooked nor exaggerated. Despite the possible social changes in the future, both languages will still be very useful. Leaving aside these pragmatic benefits, given that teaching methods and materials are well organized and improved, bilingualism should serve to enrich the students culturally. If Hong Kong can develop into a genuinely bilingual community, making social and economic resources available for all speakers of either language and attaining "a healthier balance between [Hong Kong's] two cultures" (Fu, 1975; p. 201), the Hong Kong Chinese will enjoy

the additive benefits of possessing a bilingual identity.

The present researcher does not quite believe in the idea, at least emotionally, that achievement in a second language can only be attained at the expense of disintegration of one's own ethnolinguistic identity (cf. Giles & Bryne, 1982). Positive perceptions towards the outgroup people and their language should not necessarily have a subtractive influence, and may perhaps be constructive to success in learning a second language.

In future, attention and effort should be directed to investigate how curriculum design, preparation and presentation of instructional materials, and teaching styles will affect students' perception of the ethnolinguistic vitality of the respective groups, and how these variables will promote success in learning a second language while at the same time promoting the students' healthy ethnolinguistic identity.

Comparatively speaking, more studies have been conducted to investigate natural second language acquisition contexts. In future, researchers ought to pay attention to environments where learning a second language is deemed necessary, but is primarily learned in the classroom. It would be interesting to see what influence intergroup relationships and intergroup perceptions will have on the second language classroom.

It has been argued in this study that it may be inadequate just to study second language orientations on the individual level. Future efforts should be channelled into ascertaining how ethnic context factors will affect learning orientations on the intergroup level.

6. EPILOGUE

In this chapter, the researcher will attempt to clarify some queries concerning the scope of this study and to point out the tentative nature and limitations of this thesis. Attention will be directed to three areas: the rationale, the experimental method and the conclusions.

Naturally there is no disagreement over the complexity of factors involved in second language learning. Apart from attitude and motivation variables, many other factors have been claimed and proved to be influential on success in this activity. Among them are general intelligence, language aptitude, family and parental support, socio-economic status, teaching style, etc. In this study, attention has focused only on attitude and motivation variables not because other factors are considered irrelevant, but because this study was purposely conducted to ascertain to what extent attitude and motivation variables alone affect learning achievement. From the figures, it was found that the affective variables were able to account for 17.19% of the performance of students in the assessment test.

According to Allport's definition of attitude, "an attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Allport, 1954; p. 45). The important aspect of this definition in the present context is that, as Gardner says, "attitudes <u>influence</u> individuals' responses to attitude objects or situations, <u>not</u> that they <u>determine</u> them" (Gardner, 1982; p. 132). As cited in the literature review, there has been considerable

research demonstrating that attitude and motivation factors are related to achievement in a second language, and that this association is independent of language aptitude. A sceptical reader will immediately ask how attitudes influence, if not determine, actual results in learning. There is abundant evidence showing that attitudinal variables serve as behavioural support in both the second language classroom and informal acquisition context. The positively oriented and highly motivated student will make better use of opportunities in natural encounter settings to practise second language skills. For instance, he will voluntarily seek out self-instructional media other than classroom texts, like television, movies, magazines, and other reading; he will be more responsive in answering questions in the language classroom situations and will receive more reinforcement from the teacher (Gliksman, 1976; Naiman et al, 1978). Besides, students classified as "drop-outs" in second language programmes are those who show significantly lower attitudes towards the language (Burstall, 1974; Gardner & Smythe, 1975).

Hence, there are three elements in the process of second language learning: attitudes towards the learning, learning behaviour and learning achievement. Attitudes can be measured on rating scales to test if the subject shows a willingness to do something or not, or feels good about something or not. Similarly, achievement in language learning can also be objectively measured by using certain kinds of assessments with the subject to determine his level of proficiency. However, behaviour is relatively difficult to quantify. When attitudes are reported to show statistical correlation with learning achievement, the question is not whether attitudes determine learning achievement or not. Instead, the place to look for an explanation of such correlation is between attitude and motiva-

tion on the one hand, and the subject's learning behaviour on the other. In other words, the aim of enquiry is to see if students' attitudes (i.e. the perception and beliefs of the learners towards numerous social objects in his immediate environment) and motivation (i.e. the affective characteristics which orient students to acquire elements of the second language) really serve as behavioural support and help students through the learning activity to gain high achievement on performance assessment.

A concrete example of positive behavioural outcome is greater willingness to meet and mix with native English speakers, as tested in Section C of the questionnaire by items such as "Do you have any westerners as your friends?" and "Do you have any English speaking penpals?". High ratings on these behavioural questions reflect that the informants hold positive and favourable attitudes towards the English speaking community. In turn, these behaviours will facilitate the learning process, bringing about a higher level of learning achievement.

One may question whether the role of English as an international language gives rise in Hong Kong to any integrative feelings towards native English speakers. The case is that English functions largely as a medium for scholastic success and business prosperity. The cultural elements represented by the English language are neither solely British nor American. In fact, this "international culture" is linked with the western society in general, or the values of white people in particular. So, for most students of English in Hong Kong, the life style, the norms and the values of the western society are vaguely equated with those of the English speaking community. The label "westerner" is hence used to indicate this stereotypical perception, because Hong Kong secondary students are seldom,

if ever capable of drawing a distinction between American, Australian, English, Irish, Scottish, Canadian people or whatever. Most students just treat all other people with white faces, blonde hair and blue eyes as people belonging to the same category. These westerners are all thought of as being open-minded, casual, easy-going, warm-hearted, eager to help, wealthy, etc. That is, the learners of English in Hong Kong will project onto these westerners everything modern and non-Chinese. Therefore, integrativeness towards the English speaking community is not directed at either the British or the American, but at westerners in general.

Since learning a second language is not simply remembering all the mechanical rules about grammar and usage, the learner of English must be prepared for an internal psychological accommodation. Consequently, the learner has to make a decision about whether he is willing to tolerate these cultural ambiguities and "shocks", whether he enjoys sharing the new culture or appreciates the experience of speaking English and talking to English speakers.

Earlier in this thesis it has been mentioned that native speaker rather than local usage is the target norm for learning English in Hong Kong. However, when pedagogical materials specifically based on British or American culture are introduced into the second language classroom, students do not seem to accept them readily. It is largely because some students are only instrumentally motivated. Hence, to make the communicative curriculum more successful, more careful adaptation of teaching materials needs to be made.

As for the experimental method of the study, there are several

limitations, mostly related to the constraints of time. It is unfortunate that it was not possible to conduct a formal pre-test. Nevertheless, in the author's opinion, these limitations have largely been remedied.

First, a similar version of Section A of the present questionnaire, the Perceived Ethnolinguistic Vitality Component, was used in late 1982 on some forty-one final-year English majors and Chinese majors at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Results of this study are summarized in Young, Pierson and Giles (1984), showing that students majoring in English language and literature manifest a stronger sense of ethnic affirmation than their Chinese major counterparts do.

Second, Section B of the research instrument was adapted from Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Battery, which has been much used and validated. Items which are not relevant to the Hong Kong context were excluded to make the whole instrument more manageable; most items were re-worded; additional questions (e.g. Q. 21 and 27) were inserted.

Third, Section D - the cloze test for measurement of learning achievement - may be short, by the usual standard. Some questions may also arise that whether certain informants had met the test material before as it is practice material for the JSEA examination. However, these factors do not undermine the validity of the test material because this test demonstrates high correlation with the English grade in the JSEA (See Table 14) which is commonly recognized as reliable.

The data on the family background of the subjects was not explicitly obtained by items like "family income" or "type of housing" because it was

thought that subjects would not be willing to reveal such information and, even worse, might bear ill-feelings towards the whole study. The author has managed to overcome this problem by selecting schools both in the urban and the rural regions to balance possible bias in the selection of subjects. In the data analysis, no significant difference exists between the two groups.

The sample size chosen is by no means small, though it does not warrant a very high level of generalization. The subjects share many of the common characterisitics of the average secondary school student in Hong Kong but, of course, the observations drawn are surely not generalizable to the whole population. The hypothesized model is still in the process of being refined. Caution should therefore be taken when conclusions are drawn.

With respect to the tentative nature of the present study, the conclusions drawn are reflections of an early attempt to understand second language learning in light of the sociopsychological perspective.

It is true that correlation does not always mean causation. Alternative interpretations are always possible when dealing with a single correlation coefficient. Techniques have been developed, however, to permit stronger inferences from correlational data. The method used is known as cross-lagged panel analysis. "It requires that individuals be tested on both the predictor and the criterion on two different occasions, referred to as Time 1 and Time 2. If the predictor causes the criterion, it would be expected that the correlation between the Time 1 predictor and the Time 2 criterion would be higher than the correlation between the Time

2 predictor and the Time 1 criterion" (Gardner, 1982; p. 138). By using this technique, attitudes, as measured by the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner & Smythe, 1978), are shown to have a real causal effect on learning achievement. In other words, the validity of that attitude measurement battery is established. Although such a technique is not employed in the present study, it should not be neglected that many of the questions in the Attitude/Motivation Complex in this study are adapted from Gardner's battery. Though no pre-test was conducted for the present survey because of time constraints, validity of the measurement instrument can still be derived from similar studies carried out elsewhere.

It is important to note that attitudes and motivation, though shown to have a causal relationship on achievement, only play a facilitating role; the close association between language and ethnolinguistic identity is the ultimate factor governing the formation of such attitudes and motivation. The model Gardner (1982) proposed considers second language learning to be a function of two major classes of variables - motivation and language aptitude. His model "suggests that the cultural milieu, reflected in beliefs held in the community about second language learning and bilingualism, will influence individuals' attitudes and beliefs about a number of factors associated with second language learning. These factors could include the implications of bilingualism to the individual (i.e. additive or subtractive) or any other factor involved with language acquisition" (Gardner, 1982; p. 144).

These kinds of cultural beliefs held in the community are specifically known as perceived ethnolinguistic vitality in the present study, represented by the sociocultural variables which will affect the formation

of attitudes and motivation.

It could well be the case that achievement and success in the second language affects the formation of favourable attitudes and positive motivation. Then, the argument seems to be circular. Attitudes affect achievement, and achievement also affects attitudes. The question then becomes "Which starts which?" In the process of learning, certain cognitive style factors rely heavily on attitudes and motivation. As in Naiman's (1978) report, a factor identified as tolerance of ambiguity is considered to be related to success in a second language in the early stages, while a second factor, field independence, is crucial at more advanced levels. It can be noted that the amount of tolerance a learner is willing to afford towards ambiguities in syntax, spelling, pronunciation, etc., depends largely on how motivated he is. Similarly. how independent the learner is in searching around for opportunities to practise and improve his second language skills depends very much on his attitudes.

So, attitudes play a facilitating role not just in helping the learner through the initial difficulties but also in sustaining his efforts in the later stages. The case then appears clearer. Learning achievement is a dependent variable of attitudes and motivation.

Now, several summary remarks about the hypothesized model in Sec. 1.3 are in order. In a bilingual milieu, the sociocultural factors will influence a language learner's perception of ethnolinguistic vitality of different groups in his environment. When he has a strong liking towards a second language and native speakers of that language, integrativeness and

other favourable social attitudes are developed. While perceived ethnolinguistic vitality is a set of perceptions linked with the social context as such, integrativeness is the willingness and desire within an individual which will direct him to put effort into learning. Hence, integrativeness acts very much as a motivational support, sustaining the learning behaviours. The integrative learner is therefore more responsive in learning and has more voluntary exposure to practice.

For the above reasons, the student possessing favourable attitudes and strong motivation attains a higher level of achievement in learning a second language. Perhaps the following statement by Naiman et al (1978) is a good summary description of the present paper: "Positive attitudes to language learning appear to be a necessary but not sufficient condition for success" (p. 100).

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Demographic profile of Hong Kong

Category	Population by the end of 1982	Population by the end of 1983	Population by the end of 1984
Total	5,287,800	5,344,400	5,397,500
Commonwealth residents	67,800	66,400	65,600
British (1), (2)	21,900	19,700	17,700
Australian (1), (2)	7,900	7,700	7,800
Canadian (1), (2)	5,000	5,500	6,000
Others	5,000	4,900	4,800
Non-Commonwealth residents	81,900	84,400	90,000
American (1), (2)	12,400	12,800	14,000
Portuguese (2)	7,400	7,600	7,800
German (2)	2,100	2,100	2,300
French (2)	1,500	1,500	1,600
Dutch (2)	1,200	1,100	1,200
Non-Chinese	149,700 (2.83%)	150,800 (2.82%)	155,600 (2.88%)
(1): Native English speakers	47,200 (0.89%)	45,700 (0.86%)	45,500 (0.84%)
(2): Westerners	59,400 (1.12%)	58,000 (1.09%)	58,400 (1.08%)

★ ★ ★ 你 對 中 英 兩 種 語 文 有 甚 麼 看 法 ？ ★ ★ ★

本港許多人士都懂得說中文和英文。這次調查
希望找出中學生對語言的認識和語言的能力。

這份問卷是由香港中文大學英文系的研究生擬訂。
請依照提示作答，**所有資料全部不記姓名。**

多謝你合作填這份問卷。

甲　部

下列問題是調查你對香港的華人與西人的了解。我們關心的是你自己的意見，請考慮清楚然後在適當地方作一「○」號。並請填答所有問題。

1. 請估計以下人仕在香港的人口比例：

西人：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿％
華人：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿％

2. 以下語言在香港受重視的程度：

中文：毫不受重視　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　十分受重視
英文：毫不受重視　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　十分受重視

3. 以下語言在國際上受重視的程度：

中文：毫不受重視　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　十分受重視
英文：毫不受重視　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　十分受重視

4. 當你與香港政府部門接觸時（如醫療、社會福利等），使用下列語言的程度：

英文：絕對沒有　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　全面使用
中文：絕對沒有　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　全面使用

5. 以下人仕每年在香港的出生率：

西人：增長中　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　下降中
華人：增長中　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　下降中

6. 以下人仕對香港經濟及商業的控制：

華人：絕對沒有　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　完全壟斷
西人：絕對沒有　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　完全壟斷

7. 以下語言在香港傳播媒介（如報紙、雜誌、電台、電視）之應用及地位：

英文：全面使用　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　絕對沒有
中文：全面使用　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　絕對沒有

8. 以下人仕在香港社會受重視的程度：

西人：毫不受重視　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　十分受重視
華人：毫不受重視　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　十分受重視

9. 以下人仕在香港的人口中是：

華人：極少數　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　極大多數
西人：極少數　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　極大多數

10. 以下語言在中小學的使用程度：

英文：絕對沒有　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　全面使用
中文：絕對沒有　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　全面使用

11.以下人仕每年從外地移居香港的數目：

華人 ： 很多 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 沒有

西人 ： 很多 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 沒有

12.以下人仕與其他國籍人仕結婚的數目：

西人 ： 沒有 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很多

華人 ： 沒有 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很多

13.以下人仕在香港的政治勢力：

華人 ： 完全控制 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 絕對沒有

西人 ： 完全控制 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 絕對沒有

14.以下人仕在香港商業機構的使用程度：

英文 ： 絕對沒有 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 全面使用

中文 ： 絕對沒有 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 全面使用

15.以下人仕每年離港移居外地的數目：

西人 ： 很多 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 沒有

華人 ： 很多 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 沒有

16.以下人仕對自己文化歷史及成就的優越感：

華人 ： 很低 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很高

西人 ： 很低 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很高

17.以下語言在香港各宗教組織（尤其是宗教崇拜）中使用的程度：

英文 ： 全面使用 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 絕對沒有

中文 ： 全面使用 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 絕對沒有

18.以下人仕的文化活動（如節日慶典、音樂會、藝術展覽等）在香港受重視的程度：

華人： 毫不受重視 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 十分受重視

西人： 毫不受重視 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 十分受重視

19.以下人仕現時在香港的活躍程度及影響力：

西人 ： 很低 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很高

華人 ： 很低 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很高

20.以下人仕在香港的富裕程度：

西人 ： 非常貧窮 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 非常富有

華人 ： 非常貧窮 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 非常富有

21.二十至三十年後，你估計以下人仕在香港的活躍程度及影響力：

西人 ： 很低 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很高

華人 ： 很低 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 很高

22.普遍來說，在香港華人與西人的接觸是：

很多 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 絕對沒有

乙 部

下列1－27題是與學習英文有關的一些看法，請根據你對這些看法的同意或不同意程度去評分。1分代表完全不同意，7分代表完全同意，而4分則是沒有意見。請參考例句：

無論讀文科或理科的同學，都必須修讀數學。 1 (2) 3 4 5 6 7

（這表示你不大同意這種看法）

1. 西人都是和藹友善的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 學好英文比學好中文更重要，因爲英文在香港享有較高的社會地位。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 學習英文簡直是浪費時間。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我希望自己可以說流利的外語。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我從沒有想過與西人交朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 學習英文對我很重要，這使我成爲有學識的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我學英文的原因，是希望結識不同國籍的人，並可以與他們交談。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 閱讀外國的文學作品，看原文版本比看翻譯本更有趣味。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 在香港，不少傑出人仕都是西人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 半世紀以來，對香港造成最大威脅的正是西方傳入的不良思想和風氣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 我盼望自己有能力閱讀外國的報刊和雜誌。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 我的英文學得好，其他人就會尊敬我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 學習英文帶給我很大樂趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 我學習英文其中一個動機，是想欣賞西方的文學和藝術。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 西人爲香港的文化加添不少色彩。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 居住在香港的西人應該努力學習中文。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 我打算盡力學好英文。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 香港一旦失去了西方的文化，將會是很大的損失。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 無論我將來從事什麼工作，學好英文是非常重要的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 除了英文以外，我亦想學其他國家的語言。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. 中國文化是世界上最優秀的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. 懂英文對了解西人的生活和風俗習慣很有幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. 學英文是既困難又沉悶的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. 因爲英文有很高的實用價值，所以我一定要把它學好。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. 學英文對我很重要，因爲我可以參加多類型的文化活動。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. 西人都善於交際和熱心助人，而且又富創造力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. 外國人利用香港是殖民地的機會，剝削香港人的利益。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

丙部　　個人資料

年齡：_____　性別：_____　籍貫：_____

去年參加初中成績評核試英文科成績：_____

你有沒有西人朋友：　㈠沒有　㈣三位

㈡一位　㈤三位以上

㈢二位

你有沒有以英文爲母語的筆友：

㈠沒有　㈣三位

㈡一位　㈤三位以上

㈢二位

丁部

In the following passage, some of the words have been left out. First, read over the passage and try to understand what it is about. Then, try to fill in the blanks. It takes exactly one word to fill in each blank. If you are not sure of the word that has been left out, guess.

It is dangerous for a double-decker bus to travel when there are standing passengers on the upper deck. Unfortunately, passengers sometimes forget that (1)_____ is dangerous. They like the (2)_____ deck because it is more (3)_____ than the lower deck. It (4)_____ not so crowded with people, (5)_____ it is cooler in the (6)_____ summer. As a result, even (7)_____ there are no empty seats, (8)_____ still want to remain on (9)_____ upper deck.

Most of the (10)_____ in Hong Kong are one-man buses. (11)_____ is not convenient for a (12)_____ to check how many people (13)_____ are on the upper deck. (14)_____ traffic in town is always (15)_____ busy. In any case, he (16)_____ leave his seat and go (17)_____ the upper deck from time (18)_____ time. He can only hope (19)_____ his passengers are sensible.

However, (20)_____ of buses which go to (21)_____ New Territories are usually very (22)_____. When there are no seats (23)_____ the upper deck, a driver (24)_____ stop people from going up. (25)_____, a driver may refuse to drive on and wait until the passengers come down.

Section A

Perceived Ethnolinguistic Vitality Component

1. Estimate the proportion of the Hong Kong population made up of the following groups:

People of western descent
0% - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - 100%
People of Chinese descent
0% - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - 100%

2. How highly regarded are the following languages in Hong Kong?

Chinese
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely highly
English
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely highly

3. How highly regarded are the following languages internationally?

Chinese
Extremely highly - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Not at all
English
Extremely highly - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Not at all

4. How often are the following languages used in Hong Kong government services (e.g. health clinics, social welfare, etc.)?

English
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively
Chinese
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

5. Estimate the birth rates of the following groups in Hong Kong?

People of western descent
Decreasing - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Increasing
People of Chinese descent
Decreasing - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Increasing

6. How much control do the following groups have over economic and business matters in Hong Kong?

People of Chinese descent
None at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusive
People of western descent
None at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusive

7. How well-represented are the following languages in the Hong Kong mass media (e.g. TV, radio, newspapers)?

English
Extremely well - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Not at all
Chinese
Extremely well - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Not al all

8. How highly regarded are the following groups in Hong Kong?

People of western descent

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely highly

People of Chinese descent

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely highly

9. In Hong Kong, to what extent are the following groups in the majority or minority?

People of Chinese descent

Very small minority - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Very large majority

People of western descent

Very small minority - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Very large majority

10. How much are the following languages taught in Hong Kong schools?

English

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

Chinese

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

11. How many of the following groups immigrate into Hong Kong each year?

People of Chinese descent

Very many - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

People of western descent

Very many - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

12. To what extent do the following groups marry only within their own groups?

People of western descent

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

People of Chinese descent

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

13. How much political power do the following groups have in Hong Kong?

People of Chinese descent

Complete - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

People of western descent

Complete - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

14. How well-represented are the following languages in business institutions?

English

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

Chinese

Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Exclusively

15. How many of the following groups emigrate from Hong Kong to other countries each year?

People of western descent

Very many - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

People of Chinese descent

Very many - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

16. How proud of their cultural history and achievements are the following groups in Hong Kong?

People of Chinese descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely
People of western descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely

17. How frequently are the following languages used in Hong Kong churches and places of religious worship?

English
Extremely - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Not at all
Chinese
Extremely - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Not al all

18. How well-represented are the following groups in the cultural life of Hong Kong (e.g. festivals, concerts, art exhibitions)?

People of Chinese descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely
People of western descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely

19. How strong and active do you feel the following groups are in Hong Kong?

People of western descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely
People of Chinese descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely

20. How wealthy do you feel the following groups are in Hong Kong?

People of western descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely
People of Chinese descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely

21. How strong and active do you feel the following groups will be 20 to 30 years from now?

People of western descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely
People of Chinese descent
Not at all - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - Extremely

22. In general, how much contact is there between people of western and Chinese descent?

Very much - 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 - None at all

*Note:

Rating scales for the following questions are presented in descending order: Q. 5, 7, 11, 13, 15, 17 and 22. For data analysis in Table 3, these have been recoded to appear in ascending order so that all the ratings follow a consistent pattern. For data analysis related to Table 4, 5, 6, 7 and 13, the following ratings have been recoded: Q. 5, 7, 11, 12, 13, and 17.

It can be seen that Q. 12 (an item concerning intermarriage) has been recoded to appear in descending order, which is originally in ascending

order and need not be recoded. Q. 15 (an item related to emigration) has been kept in descending order.

There are special reasons for the above changes. The composite factors, i.e. IN.STAT, IN.DEMO, IN.INST, OUT.STAT, OUT.DEMO and OUT.INST are obtained by adding up the following:

STAT = Q.2 + Q.3 + Q.8 + Q.16 + Q.20
DEMO = Q.1 + Q.5 + Q.9 + Q.11 + Q.12 + Q.15
INST = Q.4 + Q.6 + Q.7 + Q.10 + Q.13 + Q.14 + Q.17 + Q.18

High ratings on Q. 1, 5, 9 and 11 indicate high ethnolinguistic vitality with respect to DEMO. But high ethnolinguistic vitality consists in low degree of intermarriage (Q. 12) and emigration (Q.15). Therefore, to obtain really meaningful scores for ethnolinguistic vitality with respect to demography, Q. 12 and 15 need to be treated in this way.

Section B

Attitude/Motivation Complex

1. Most westerners are so friendly and easy to get along with that Hong Kong is so fortunate to have them.

2. Good command of English is more important than that of Chinese because English enjoys higher social esteem.

3. Learning English is a waste of time.

4. I wish I could speak a foreign language perfectly.

5. I never wish to make friends with westerners.

6. Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.

7. Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.

8. I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original rather than a translation.

9. Some of our best citizens are of western descent.

10. The worst danger to real Hong Kongism during the last fifty years have come from western ideas and troublemakers.

11. I often wish I could read newspaper and magazines in another language.

12. Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of a foreign language.

13. I really enjoy learning English.

14. Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand western art and literature.

15. Westerners add a distinctive flavour to the Hong Kong culture.

16. Westerners living in Hong Kong should make a better effort to learn the Chinese language.

17. I plan to learn as much English as possible.

18. If Hong Kong should lose the western culture, it would indeed be a great loss.

19. No matter what kind of job I take in the future, English will still be important for me.

20. I would really like to learn foreign languages other than English.

21. Chinese culture is the most superior in the world.

22. Knowing English helps me better understand western life styles and cultural traditions.

23. I think that learning English is both dull and difficult.

24. As English is of high instrumental value, I must learn it well.

25. Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.

26. Westerners are a very sociable, warm-hearted and creative people.

27. Foreigners make use of the colonial status of Hong Kong to exploit us.

*Note: A 7-point scale is used with the above 27 questions, with "1" indicating strong disagreement and "7" meaning strong agreement.

Section C

Personal background data

Age: _____ Sex: _____ Village of native origin: _____

Result for English in JSEA taken the year before: _____

Do you have any westerners as your friends?
(1) Nil (2) One (3) Two (4) Three (5) More than three

Do you have any English speaking penpals?
(1) Nil (2) One (3) Two (4) Three (5) More than three

Section D

Cloze test

(See Section D of Appendix B)

Guidelines for teachers administering the test

(1) The students should be reminded that their identity will not be revealed. They need not discuss the questions among themselves and should report their own feelings.

(2) The test battery consists of 4 sections:
A. Attitude questionnaire (22 questions)
B. Attitude questionnaire (27 questions)
C. Personal data
D. Cloze test

(3) The students will be given 60 minutes to finish the entire test. The teacher can advise them to spend 35 - 40 minutes on the first three sections and 20 - 25 minutes on Section D. They should be able to answer all the questions.

(4) However, the above mentioned scheme is only intended to serve as a reference. If every student has finished the test before the time limit, the teacher can collect the papers earlier. Conversely, if the students cannot finish the test on time, the teacher can give them another 10 minutes.

*****

Special notes concerning the test format of Section A:

The student's task is to compare his views on the 2 entries in each question. He has to decide (a) which descriptor is more suitable for that particular entry and (b) to what extent that descriptor is suitable. If he thinks neither descriptors are applicable, or he has no opinion, he can choose "4" on the scale. The numbers "1", "2" and "3" stand for "very suitable", "quite suitable" and "slightly suitable". So do the numbers "7", "6" and "5". THE IDEA OF THE 7-POINT SCALE IS TO RECORD A GRADUAL CHANGE IN ATTITUDE.